BASIC ENGLISH LESSON SCRIPTS

(Indian Army Edition)

BOOK THREE

(For First Class English Certificate)

BASIC

published for
THE ORTHOLOGICAL INSTITUTE
(INDIA)
by
THE TIMES OF INDIA PRESS
BOMBAY, INDIA

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by

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A MASS-PRODUCTION TECHNIQUE OF ENGLISH-TEACHING

This is the third of four books prepared for the teaching of English as a foreign language, up to the 2,000-word level, on Basic, 'mass-production' lines. *Book One* teaches 275 of the 850 Basic words and about half the grammar of Basic English. *Book Two* teaches another 325 words and the other half of the grammar. This book completes the learner's knowledge of Basic English and gives further practice in the use of the 850 words, the 250 idioms and the chief grammatical constructions. *Book Four*, otherwise known as *Wider English Lesson Scripts*, takes the learner on, if he wants to go on, to Wider English, using Basic as a foundation and as a key.

History and Principles

The history and principles of this new technique are fully explained and discussed in the introductions to *Book One* and *Book Two*, and since there is no space to repeat the explanations and arguments here, or even to recapitulate them, the reader is advised to study the introductory material of the first two books of the series if he wishes to understand clearly and fully the instructions given here.

Two Divisions

This book falls naturally into two main divisions. The first (Part One, Units 1-68, pages 16-149) completes the learner's knowledge of Basic English, in the *quantitative* sense, by grafting the last 250 words on to his vocabulary. The second division (Parts 2-7, pages 150-291) completes his knowledge, in the *qualitative* sense, by providing all the various types of 'one-level' practice calculated to make him a fluent and accurate reader, speaker and writer of Basic English.

Teaching Technique

The teaching technique for Part 1 of this book is exactly the same as for *Book Two* of the series, and as it is fully explained in the *Book Two* introduction nothing need be said about it here. Parts 2-7, however, involve the use of not one but a number of new and different techniques, and since these are unlikely to be familiar to the average teacher they must be analysed and explained here.

One-Level Practice

It has been said that each of these parts affords a different kind of one-level practice. What, in general, is one-level practice? Stated simply, in terms already familiar to the teacher of *Book One* and *Book Two*, it is reading and speaking practice based on material in which the rate of ingress of new words has been reduced to zero. The essence of a mass-production technique, as has already been explained, is that, to help both teacher and learner, it *increases* the amount of text and at the same time *reduces* the rate at which new words are introduced into the text. In one-level practice this idea is carried to its logical conclusion. During this stage there are *no* new words for the learner to assimilate. Instead of having new difficulties to bite on, he merely 'chews the cud' (*i.e.*, the words and constructions already learnt) in order to ensure thorough and complete digestion. It is a halt, a 'breather,' a period of checking and revision, a time for consolidation of knowledge already acquired and preparation for what is to come.

The 'Plateau' Idea

It cannot be repeated too often that learning to use a language, like learning to ride a bicycle, is almost wholly a matter of *practice*. It follows that just as it is easier for the cycle-learner to practise cycling on level ground so it must be easier for the language-learner to practise using his new language 'on the flat'. He arrives at this plateau, at the end of the Basic stage, with a fair knowledge of the 850 words, but he has yet to see them again and again, *in every possible sort of context*, before they become his ready servants.

Variety of Context

It is in making possible this 'variety of context' that Basic has perhaps made its greatest contribution to effective English-teaching. The great contribution of Basic English to the science of language-teaching is that it has, for the first time, provided a selection of only 850 words with which it is possible to cover, in reading, speaking and writing, all ideas within the range not only of the child of seven, or eleven, or fifteen, but even of the adult who takes a lively interest in the affairs, political, social, economic, religious, scientific, of his country and of the great world in which he lives. Before the invention of Basic it would have been utterly impossible, within the limits of 850 words only, to have provided practice material as varied and as 'mature' as will be found in Units 1-100 of this book. Thus the learner walking on the plateau is not confined to one narrow highway; he wanders freely over the whole field of human activity and endeavour. The cud which he

chews is not a cud of content, it is a cud of vocabulary only. Only in this way can monotony be avoided and interest maintained. Repetition is important, but repetition by itself is not enough ; it is the combination of repetition of words and variety of ideas which is the secret of success in language-teaching. Without Basic this combination would be impossible.

The Basic Scheme

The Basic scheme of English-teaching should now be clear. It divides naturally into three stages :

Stage 1—Introduction (or Acquisition) : The learner is introduced to the language and acquires the minimum number of words (850) necessary for the reading and expression of all ideas which he is mentally capable of grasping and discussing.

Stage 2—One-Level Practice (or Fixation) : The learner practises, using no words other than the 850, in order to 'fix' the correct forms of expression in his mind.

Stage 3—Expansion (or Application) : The learner, having halted for a 'breather' at the Basic level, continues his upward climb of the 'word-ladder,' using the Basic (defining) words he has learnt and practised with as a key to unlock the senses of the much greater number of new words he will find in Wider English.

This book thus covers the last part of Stage 1 and the whole of Stage 2. Stage 3 (the renewal of the upward climb) is left for the *Wider English Lesson Scripts* (*Book Four* of the series as a whole).

Aspects of One-Level Practice

Having discussed the nature and objects of one-level practice in general we are now in a position to analyse the various techniques and procedures by which it may be achieved. A complete one-level practice stage for English comprises five main activities. Here they are, with the pages they occupy in this book shown in brackets :

1. Reading and retelling (Part 2, pages 150-173).
2. Word study through pictures (Part 3, pages 174-197).
3. Grammar (Parts 4 and 5, pages 198-251).
4. Translation (Part 6, pages 252-275).
5. Phonetics (Part 7, pages 276-291).

It is now proposed to deal with each of these in turn.

Reading and Retelling (Units 69-80)

Hitherto, throughout the introductory stage, the lesson-procedure has been mainly from speaking to reading. The teacher first attempted to demonstrate the meanings of new words *orally*, with the help of objects and/or pictures (filmstrips), and then used the text as a *supplementary aid* to memorisation. In other words the reading *followed* the conversation. Now, in the one-level practice stage, there are no new words to teach, and the procedure is therefore reversed—the conversation is based on and follows the reading. The aim of the conversation (questions and answers) is to make the learner so familiar with the subject-matter that, without actually learning it by heart, he is able to 'retell' it, more or less word for word, without help from book or teacher.

With a bright class time can be saved by dispensing with a model reading of the text by the teacher and by allowing learners to question one another without preliminary questioning by the teacher. The answers may be given first from the text and then from memory. This means almost complete self-effacement on the teacher's part, except for general control and correction. This will not be possible, however, with a backward class.

Intensive and Extensive Reading

These twelve units are provided as a basis for *intensive class* work. Still better results will be achieved if in addition the teacher provides his learners with *intensive home* reading in the shape of the numerous books available in Basic English. Some of these are simple stories (*Robinson Crusoe, The Gold Insect*, etc.) ; others, like *Late Night Special, Wires Round the Earth, Great Discoveries*, etc., provide more serious reading with a definite general knowledge value. But all use only the 850 words of Basic English, and because the learner finds no new words to puzzle him he can read them with that 'pleasure and sense of achievement' which are so essential to further progress. For extensive reading the questions and word-tests at the end of each book are a sufficient test of the learner's comprehension and mastery of the vocabulary. If these books can be made available in a class library, and if the learner can be induced or encouraged to read only ten of them, he will meet each Basic word, on an average, nearly 300 times, each time in a different context. Is it too much to claim that the reading of each book will make the reading of the next one still easier and more pleasurable ?

Word Study (Units 81-100)

Side by side with his intensive 'reading-retelling' in class and extensive 'reading-for-pleasure' at home the learner is enabled to deepen and strengthen his command over the Basic words by studying pictures in which their various meanings are illustrated in a systematic way. The pictures provided for this purpose (in Part 3) are reproduced from the *Basic Picture Dictionary*, by C. K. Ogden and James Forsyth, a work in which the essential 'picturability' of the Basic words has been exploited to the full.

The Basic Picture Dictionary

Pictures have of course long been used as an aid in teaching words which symbolise simple concrete objects such as an arm or a cup. But the *Basic Picture*

Dictionary goes far beyond this ; it is in fact the first attempt which has yet been made to picture, in a *systematic* way :

1. The meaning of words, like *taste* and *smell*, which do not stand for concrete objects.
2. The development of special and expanded senses of words, both concrete and abstract, from their root sense ; how, for example, *arms* (of the body) expands to the *arms* (weapons) with which the body is defended ; how *taste* (of apples) develops into aesthetic *taste* (in dress, art, etc.).

Of the 850 Basic words no less than 550 have been 'presented' pictorially in the *Dictionary*, but limitations of space make it impossible to include more than 37 of them here. These 37 have been selected not because they are the most difficult but because they illustrate most clearly the use of metaphor in language. The purpose of these samples is not so much to revise the particular words chosen as to give the student a training in the recognition and use of metaphorical uses, and to encourage him to study the much greater number of words pictured in the *Dictionary* itself.

Composite Pictures

Although most of the Basic sense-extensions are taught in the previous Lesson Scripts the necessity for the strict grading and natural grouping of material makes it impossible to deal with every word exhaustively where it is first introduced. The collection of the various senses into one composite picture not only gives an opportunity for systematic revision of the words pictured in this way but also shows, more clearly than in the previous Units, how the special or expanded senses develop naturally from the root sense.

Although the learner might learn much merely by walking, on his own, through the small "picture-gallery" included in this book, looking at each picture in turn, obviously he will learn much more if he has a guide to direct him, and it is to enable the teacher to act as guide that the accompanying text and questions have been prepared. The great value of the questions is this : not only do they force the student to 'think for himself' about the words he is studying ; they also compel him to *use* the words while he is studying them.

Words About Words

Any sort of teacher-learner conversation will no doubt give the student practice in understanding and expression, and so increase his fluency and accuracy. But how much greater must be the value of a conversation which is about the words *used* in the conversation ?

Look, for example, at the questions on the word *step* (Unit 92). Sooner or later the student, in his reading, is bound to come across a sentence like this :

You will be guided by your good sense as to the *steps* you will *take*. (*Gulliver, Part II, page* 48.)

Will he not visualise all the more easily the sense of the expression *take steps* (= action) because of the picture and the talk he has had about it ? And if he can visualise its sense more easily, will he not be all the more likely to *use* the expression, without effort and without error, in his own speaking and writing ?

Paving the Way

But the object of one-level practice is not only to increase fluency and accuracy within the Basic limits ; it is also to pave the way to expansion in the Wider English stage. And here too the *Basic Picture Dictionary* plays an important part. The method of Basic expansion is to explain all new (non-Basic) words in terms of the Basic words which have already been learnt and mastered. If the student is to form a clear image of the meaning of a new (non-Basic) word it is clearly desirable that he should have a clear image of the (Basic) words which are used to define it.

Suppose, for example, that in his expansion stage the student comes across the sentence :

They took measures to put a stop to the fighting.

He has not met the word *measures* used in this sense. Looking it up in his dictionary he finds

take measures = take steps

But for the picture talk on *step* he might have been puzzled by the explanation (why 'walk' to put an end to the fighting ?). As it is he has no difficulty. He has added another word (*measure*), quite safely, to his vocabulary.

Finally, as with the reading, the intensive training which the student gets from Part 3 should help him to derive much greater benefit from his more extensive browsing through the *Basic Picture Dictionary* itself.

Procedure

In framing the questions (which are all of course in Basic English) it would have been difficult, even if considered desirable, to work to a formula which would always tie the learner down to one form of answer.

To make all the questions 'fool-proof' from this point of view one would have to be largely content with 'yes' or 'no' answers or questions in the form of "Is it x or *y*" ? As has been said, it is above all desirable to make the student think for himself, and the fact that this leaves room for alternative answers need not discourage the teacher ; if an answer is good but interrupts the logical sequence it is up to him to bring the 'train of thought' back on to the rails by the usual classroom technique.

If, that is to say, a learner gives a sensible answer but fails to supply the link needed for the next question, the teacher should pass his answer as correct, but ask for an alternative from some other member of the class, and continue with the questioning when he has been given an answer approximating to the one he wants. As there can never be more than two or three alternative possibilities the one needed should always be forthcoming without much delay.

Grammar (Parts 4 and 5)

Is it possible to learn to read, speak and write a foreign language without systematic instruction in its grammar and syntax? This question has long been hotly debated. The debate turns largely on what is meant by "instruction". When an English child says 'I seed him' for 'I saw him,' as every English child does some time or other, someone corrects the mistake and after being corrected a number of times the child eliminates the mistake. There is no reference to the past tense of weak and strong verbs. There is no use of grammatical terminology at all. No rule is given, no exercises are worked through. Can this be called instruction in correct grammatical usage, or not? The question is not important. The important question is: Can the foreign learner learn to speak English grammatically in the same way as the English child learns to do so—unconsciously, by trial and error, by mistake and correction, without reference to or use of grammatical terminology?

Unconscious Foundation

The answer provided by the *Lesson Scripts* is simple. It is this. Obviously the 'unconscious' way *of trial and error* is more natural and more interesting than learning grammatical rules. If it is more natural and interesting then it must be easier and better. Let the foreign learner therefore first pick up as much grammatical usage as he can *unconsciously*. In the first (introductory) stage give him as much foundation drill as possible but not a systematic course in the rules. Let him learn the difference between *a* and *the*, *is* and *are*, chiefly by sheer force of example. Drill of this nature is provided by the repetition and practice drills and by the seatwork exercises. This in fact is the fundamental idea of 'seatwork'—training in construction without the use of grammatical terminology. Thus at the end of the introductory stage the learner should be able to express himself *fairly* fluently and accurately, without having had a systematic course in grammar. The emphasis is on *fairly*.

Grammar Hours—A Comparison

Accuracy cannot be more than fair because the average learner, in an average class, cannot give anything like the same amount of time to English as the English child. The English child is *always* hearing, *always* using, and therefore *always* learning English. By the time he is five he has been learning English for five solid years. If he sleeps 12 hours a day he has had $5 \times 365 \times 12 = 21,900$ hours of English. If the foreign learner, let us say, has one hour a day for a year, working every day, he will have had only 365 hours. So, if he is to speak English as correctly as the English child of five, he must do in 365 hours what the English child does in 21,900. Is that possible?

The answer is that for the normal learner, under normal conditions, it is not.

Conscious Consolidation

The object of grammar teaching in the one-level stage is to enable the learner to consolidate and perfect, consciously, the knowledge he has acquired unconsciously in the introductory stage. It is to help him in the achievement of this object that Parts 4 and 5 have been included. Because they approach the problem of grammar from a new angle they embody several new features:

1. Limited Vocabulary. As the learner's vocabulary at this stage is limited to the 850 Basic words all the rules, explanations, examples and exercises are likewise limited to the Basic vocabulary. Though the subject is 'grammar' the material is still 'one-level,' and has an additional value as such.

2. Formal and Functional. Grammar is shown in its two aspects—'formal' and 'functional.' Formal grammar (Part 4) is concerned chiefly with the classification and naming of the parts of speech. Functional grammar (Part 5) is concerned with the correct use of the parts of speech (accidence) and the construction of phrases, clauses and sentences (syntax). Of the two functional grammar is, from the practical point of view, obviously the more important. Why then teach formal grammar at all?

Simply because one cannot teach (or rather it would be difficult to teach) the use of the 'past simple' and 'present perfect' tenses (functional grammar) unless one has first taught their names (formal grammar). Part 4, that is to say, is not an end in itself, but merely a means to an end. As such it excludes purely 'academic' points (such as gender, dative case, cognate accusative, e c.), which are not needed as a foundation for the functional grammar by which the student learns to speak and write English correctly. Similarly Part 5 does not cover all the points of functional grammar because, on the one hand, some will have been mastered without difficulty in the introductory stage, and because, on the other, some are outside the range of Basic, and have their place in the *Wider English Lesson Scripts*, which cover the 'postponed' items of syntax and idiom which make up a complete knowledge of English.

But the points which are covered (in Part 5) deal with most of the mistakes it is possible to make, and anyone who can eliminate these can be certain that, 99 times out of 100, his English will be not only right but natural.

Trial and Error

But can mistakes be eliminated entirely merely by studying the rules and explanations and working through the exercises provided. Here again the answer is: No! In the first place there are not nearly enough exercises, and more could not be given without enlarging the book to unreasonable proportions. The exercises provided must be regarded only as models, on the pattern

of which the teacher must himself make up more from the one-level reading material. Secondly, no amount of drill can take the place of the 'trial and error' method of free written work, marked by the teacher and corrected by the learner. After the class has worked systematically through Parts 4 and 5 learners should be referred back to any rule which is broken either in speaking or writing. To make reference easy for both teacher and students, Part 5 has been built up on a numerical plan, the material being arranged in 48 sections. Every rule is numbered, and on pages 12 and 13 there is an index showing on which pages the rules are to be found.

How to Mark

A specimen piece of written work, marked by the teacher and corrected by the student, is reproduced on pages 14 and 15. As far as possible all written work (paraphrase, translation, composition, etc.) should be done in exercise books, not on loose sheets of paper. All the teacher has to do, in marking a mistake, is to put in the margin the number of the rule which has been broken, leaving the student to look up the rule, study it and then write out the correction himself. Students should reserve the right-hand pages in all their exercise books for corrections, each of which should be written out, before the next assignment, directly opposite the mistake and the rule indicated by the teacher in the margin. It has already been emphasised, in the introduction to *Book Two*, that written work is valueless unless corrections are conscientiously done by the student and carefully checked by the teacher before the next assignment is marked.

Record of Errors

Moreover, exercise books marked in thi way provide a permanent record of the student's progress in eliminating common errors. If the teacher, looking back, finds that the same rule is being repeatedly broken he may ask the student to work through all or part of the appropriate test, in addition to making the correction. Teachers will find that after using the book for a short while in this way they will quite easily be able to quote the numbers of the sections without having to refer to the index. Students also soon become familiar with the 'index-numbers' of the rules which give most trouble, and will quote (for example) V2b or G3d quite readily when asked to pin down a mistake made by one of their number in an oral answer or reproduction.

Translation (Part 6)

It is believed that during the one-level practice there should also be a systematic revision of the Basic words and uses by the method of translation. For this purpose more than 2,000 short example sentences are provided, in Part 6, for translation into and from the learner's own language. The sentences are reproduced, with minor changes, from *Basic by Examples*, by C. K. Ogden.

Teachers who are fanatical direct-methodists may object to this translation-drill as contrary to modern principles of language-teaching. There are three answers to this objection :

1. Learners who have been through the *Lesson Scripts* in the introductory stage have in fact learnt all the words and usages by the direct method. Translation drill at this stage merely perfects and systematises their knowledge.

2. Since almost every learner will have to translate, both from and into English, at some time or other, for commercial, literary, or purely private purposes, translation must be regarded as an end in itself. If it is in fact an end in itself the teacher is justified, on the principle of specific practice, in teaching its technique, and this, it is claimed, may best be done at a stage when the learner has practically no difficulty with vocabulary and can concentrate on the technique itself.

3. To ensure, however, that the learner, while receiving this training, does not lose the power to 'think in English,' he is at the same time exercised in direct expression with the help of the one-level reading-retelling material and the picture-study.

Two Uses

There are two chief uses to which the examples in Part 6 may be put :

1. **Reference.** At the outset of the one-level practice period, the learner, while reading his one-level material, both intensive and extensive, will probably find that he has forgotten the exact meaning of some of the less frequently used Basic words and usages that he has learnt in the introductory stage. By looking up the examples in Part 6 he will be able to refresh his memory quickly and easily and thus further strengthen his grasp of the essential vocabulary.

2. **Translation Drill.** The teacher who is anxious to ensure that these less frequently used words and usages are thoroughly known by the learner before he passes on to the expansion stage may select a number of them each week for special, more systematic study and memorisation.

In the first half of the one-level practice period the translation should be only from English into the vernacular. Then, in the second half, when every learner is certain of the meaning of every Basic word and idiom, the teacher may, in the same way, give drill-sentences in the vernacular and demand translation back into English. This, of course, is more difficult, but by constant drill it should be possible to achieve a high standard of accuracy. Teachers whose knowledge of the learners' vernacular is inadequate to this task will naturally have to make use of interpreters.

Phonetics (Part 7)

Lastly it is considered desirable that before the learner embarks on the sea of Wider English he should be given a compass, however simple, to guide him towards a fairly high standard of correct pronunciation. Use has been made here of the standard work on the subject —Mr. J. Rantz's *Sounds and Forms of Basic English*, which has already appeared, in Basic English, as one of the Psyche Miniatures. But why should such a guide be necessary? The reasons, briefly, are as follows:

The main teaching principle of the introductory stage, once again, is that as far as possible no new word should be read and written before it is heard and spoken. First the 'patter,' then the reading. This ensures that if the teacher himself pronounces correctly the learner will always get the right sound-pattern and will never be misled, though the eccentricities of English spelling, into rhyming, for example, *blood* with *food* or *move* with *glove*.

Reading Approach

In the Wider English stage, however, for various reasons, this oral approach will not be possible. The learner will see most of his new words, in print, before he hears them spoken. How, without a guide, will he know how to pronounce them? What will he make, for example, of new words like *people, suit, nephew, thorough* and so on? There will be no difficulty about meanings. These he will find in the *Basic Dictionary*, given in terms of his Basic vocabulary. But he will not be able to *say* them correctly unless he is able to interpret the phonetic symbols which are used, in the Dictionary, as a guide to the pronunciation of every word. It is therefore essential to teach the learner the phonetic symbols and the sounds they symbolise, at this stage, so that he will be able, if necessary, to go on enlarging his speaking-vocabulary in the Wider English stage without the help of a teacher. This is one of the objects of Mr. Rantz's excellent little book, here reproduced as Part 7.

Intonation

But to speak English correctly it is necessary not only to make the right sounds; one has to stress the right syllable in the word and the right word in the sentence. There is little difficulty, in Basic, about the stressing of the right syllable, because out of the 850 words no less than 513 (the most frequently used) consist of one syllable only. But the rules which govern the shifting of the stress in the sentence as a whole (intonation) are more difficult and these are therefore treated fully in the second half of Part 7.

Because intonation is so important (see introduction to *Book One*) the learner is guided, throughout *Books One* and *Two*, by having the words to be stressed printed for him in bold type. The time has now come for the learner to stand on his own feet, and therefore in this book no bold type is used for this purpose. Instead the learner is given, in Part 7, a lucid exposition of the *principles* which determine intonation, he is given model exercises in the application of the principles, and he is then expected, with occasional help from the teacher, to be able to work out the intonation, for the reading of Units 81—100 and the rest of the book, for himself.

Time-Table For One-Level Practice

The last sentence should make it clear that the learner, having come to the end of Part 1, is *not* expected to work through Parts 2 to 7 consecutively, in the order in which they appear in the book. Once the plateau is reached the work branches out along the five lines indicated and proceeds steadily along the whole front week by week. Assuming that roughly 600 minutes (ten periods) a week are devoted to English the allocation might be as follows :—

Retelling	200
Picture Study	150
Grammar	100
Translation	100
Phonetics	50

Nor is it advisable to devote any period as a whole to one kind of work only. It is not a bad idea, for example, to start every lesson with a brisk *five*-minute oral translation drill, based on the examples in Part 6, to get the class alert and 'on their toes'. The rest of the lesson might then be given up some retelling and some grammar, or some picture study and some phonetics, the combination depending on the teacher's own convenience and inclination.

In general it will be found that the one-level stage divides into two halves, as shown below. There is nothing hard and fast about this arrangement, the basis of division being merely that the work undertaken in the early stages should make less demands on the memory and skill of the learner than it does in the later.

Work	*First Half*	*Second Half*
Retelling	Fiction (narrative)	Fact (exposition)
Picture Study	'Concrete' words	'Abstract' words
Grammar	Formal	Functional
Translation	English to vernacular	Vernacular to English
Phonetics	Transcription from symbols to alphabet	Transcription from alphabet to symbols.

LIST OF PAGES

PART 1: THE LAST 250 WORDS

Units of Work

PART 2: ONE-LEVEL (RETELLING)

PART 3: ONE-LEVEL (WORD-STRETCHES)

PART 4: GRAMMAR (NAMES AND FORMS)

PART 5: GRAMMAR (RULES AND USES)

PART 5: GRAMMAR (RULES AND USES)

FOR AN EXAMPLE OF THE WAY IN WHICH THIS INDEX IS TO BE USED IN MARKING SEE PAGES 14—15.

Translation Test

1. If the Government takes this step there would be the general approval.
2. Every boy in the school have to have their eyes tested.
3. The manager is ill for the last 3 weeks
4. Miss A was married with Mr. B. yesterday.
5. This is the same suggestion which was made before.
6. He said that though there was no rule against smoking but it was hoped no one would.
7. By that time the U.S.A. was free from British rule for eight years.
8. While Mr. C. gave his talk, some persons got up and went out of the room.

✓ 9. Japan did not have any forces to send to China at that time.

10. The caretaker is going through the building every night for making certain all is in order.

Students' Correction

V5b ..... takes ..... there will be
G2d general approval (no article)
V10f Every boy ...... has to have .....
G1a his eyes
V2b .... has been ill for the last .....
G6a .... married to ......
G3d .... same suggestion as
.... though there was ..... it was
S1d hoped ('but' unnecessary)
V4a ...... U.S.A had been free for 8 years

V3b while .... was giving, some persons ....

V1b .... goes ...... every night
V8d .... to make certain ...

PART 1

THE LAST 250 WORDS

Unit 1: A Sad Story

true, false



A. Years back there was a washerman in a village. Every Sunday he would go round the village with his donkey, put all the dirty clothing on its back, take it down to a river and do the washing on a flat, smooth stone by the edge of the river. The river was less than half a furlong from the village, but it was full of danger because of the crocodiles which were living in it.

B. Have you ever seen a crocodile ? It is an animal with a hard outer skin and a long cruel-looking mouth. It is said that when it is in the water it is as strong as an elephant, but when it is on dry land it is not even half as strong as a five-year-old boy or girl. This may be true or it may be false. But that is what men who have a good knowledge of crocodiles say. True or false it is never safe to go near the edge of a river in which there is a crocodile. It keeps a watch on the edge of the water, looking out for food. Sometimes, when someone goes down to have a drink or a swim or do the washing, it comes up unseen, very slowly and quietly, and then with one quick long jump it gets you by the leg. And once your leg is between its teeth it is no use putting up a fight. You go down, down into the river and that is the end of you. That is how a crocodile gets its food.

C. But let us go back to the story of the washerman. One day, while he was washing a shirt on the stone by the edge of the river, he said to himself, "Every day when I go round the village the men make sport of me and my donkey. They say all sorts of bad things and keep on laughing at us. Today I am going to do to them what they have been doing to me all these years. I am going to have a good laugh at them, as they have been laughing at me." So saying he gave a loud cry, "Crocodile ! Crocodile ! Help ! Help !"

D. Now this was not true ; it was false. There were no crocodiles to be seen. But when the washerman's cry for help came to the villagers' ears they came running to the edge of the river, some armed with great sticks, others with sharp blades. When they came up to the washerman they said, "Where is the crocodile ? Where is the crocodile ?" The washerman's answer was a long laugh. "There are no crocodiles about," he said. "I was only having a bit of sport with you." "So what you said was not true ; it was false, was it ?" "Yes," was the answer. "What I said was not true ; it was false. There are no crocodiles about." This made the villagers very angry. But they went away without saying a word.

E. Two days later, while the washerman was washing a dhoti, he said to himself, "I'll have another bit of sport today. After all they have been laughing at me for years now. It wouldn't be wrong if I had another laugh at them." So saying he gave a loud cry, "Crocodile ! Crocodile ! Help ! Help !" But when the villagers came to the edge of the river they saw that there were no crocodiles about and the washerman was quite safe. This made them even more angry, but again they went away without saying a word.

F. Three days later the washerman was washing a sari when looking round he saw a crocodile making straight for him. He gave a cry of fear and, dropping the sari on the stone, made an attempt to get away. But while he was getting out of the river he had a fall and went slipping back into the water. Turning round he saw the crocodile coming nearer and nearer. Its mouth was wide open, and he was able to see its long sharp teeth. He made another attempt to get away but in the fall his knee had been twisted ; he was not even able to get up. Another minute or two and the crocodile would be upon him. Maybe if he gave a cry the villagers might at least be able to keep him from death. So he gave a loud cry, "Crocodile ! Crocodile ! Help ! Help !" But no-one came. He gave a louder cry, "Crocodile ! Crocodile ! Help ! Help !" Still no-one came. The villagers said among themselves, "What he says is not true. There are no crocodiles there. He is having a game with us." And so they did not go.

G. While the villagers were talking among themselves the crocodile came and with one strong pull it took the washerman down into the river. He made a feeble attempt to get his leg out of the crocodile's mouth, but it was no use. Down he went into the river with the crocodile and never came up again.

H. That is the end of the story. And this is what becomes of persons who say things which are not true. If you say things which are false you get a bad name and then even when you say things which are true they are taken as false. "Everything that man says is false," your friends will say. "Have nothing to do with him. Keep him at a distance."

A1 : On what day of the week did the washerman go round the village ?
2 : What did he go round the village for ?
3 : How did he take the dirty clothing down to the river ?
4 : Where did he do the washing ?
5 : How far was the river from the village ?
6 : Was the river safe ?
7 : Why wasn't it safe ?

B1 : What sort of animal is a crocodile ?
2 : How strong do they say a crocodile is when it is in the water ?
3 : How strong is it on land ?
4 : Is this true ?
5 : Would you go near the edge of a river in which there are crocodiles ?
6 : Why wouldn't you ?
7 : Why is it no use putting up a fight once the crocodile gets you ?
8 : Where does the crocodile take you ?

C1 : What was the washerman doing one day ?
2 : Why was he angry with the men of the village ?
3 : How did they make sport of him ?
4 : What did he say he would do to them ?
5 : He gave a loud cry. What did he say ?

D1 : Was this true ?
2 : Were there any crocodiles ?
3 : What did the villagers do on hearing his cry ?
4 : How were they armed ?
5 : What did they say when they came up to him ?
6 : What was his answer ?
7 : Why were the villagers angry with him ?
8 : Did they say anything when they went away ?

E1 : What was the washerman doing this time ?
2 : Was he still angry with the men of the village ?
3 : What did he say to himself ?
4 : He gave a loud cry. What did he say this time ?
5 : Did they see any crocodiles when they got to the edge of the river ?
6 : Did the fishermen say anything when they went away ?

F1 : What was the washerman doing three days later ?
2 : Looking round, what did he see ?
3 : What did he do ?
4 : Why was he not able to get away ?
5 : Turning round, what did he see ?
6 : Why was he able to see the crocodile's long sharp teeth ?
7 : What did he do ?
8 : Why wasn't he even able to get up ?
9 : Why did he go on crying for help ?
10 : Why didn't the villagers go to his help ?

G1 : What did the crocodile do while the villagers were talking ?
2 : Why wasn't the washerman able to get his leg out of the crocodile's mouth ?
3 : Where did the crocodile take him ?
4 : Was he ever seen again ?

H : Why is it a bad thing to say things which are not true ?

P1 : It is true that he has taken my (pen). I saw him take it.
S : Pen : pencil, knife, foot-rule, rubber, book, etc.

2 : It is not true that (Gopal) is ill. It is false. I saw him walking in the street only a minute back.
S : Gopal : Gopal's father, Gopal's mother, Gopal's sister, Gopal's brother.

3 : Is it true that you (did not go on parade) yesterday ?
S : Did not go, etc. : were late for parade, early for parade, did not get your equipment clean, did not go to bed at lights out, etc.

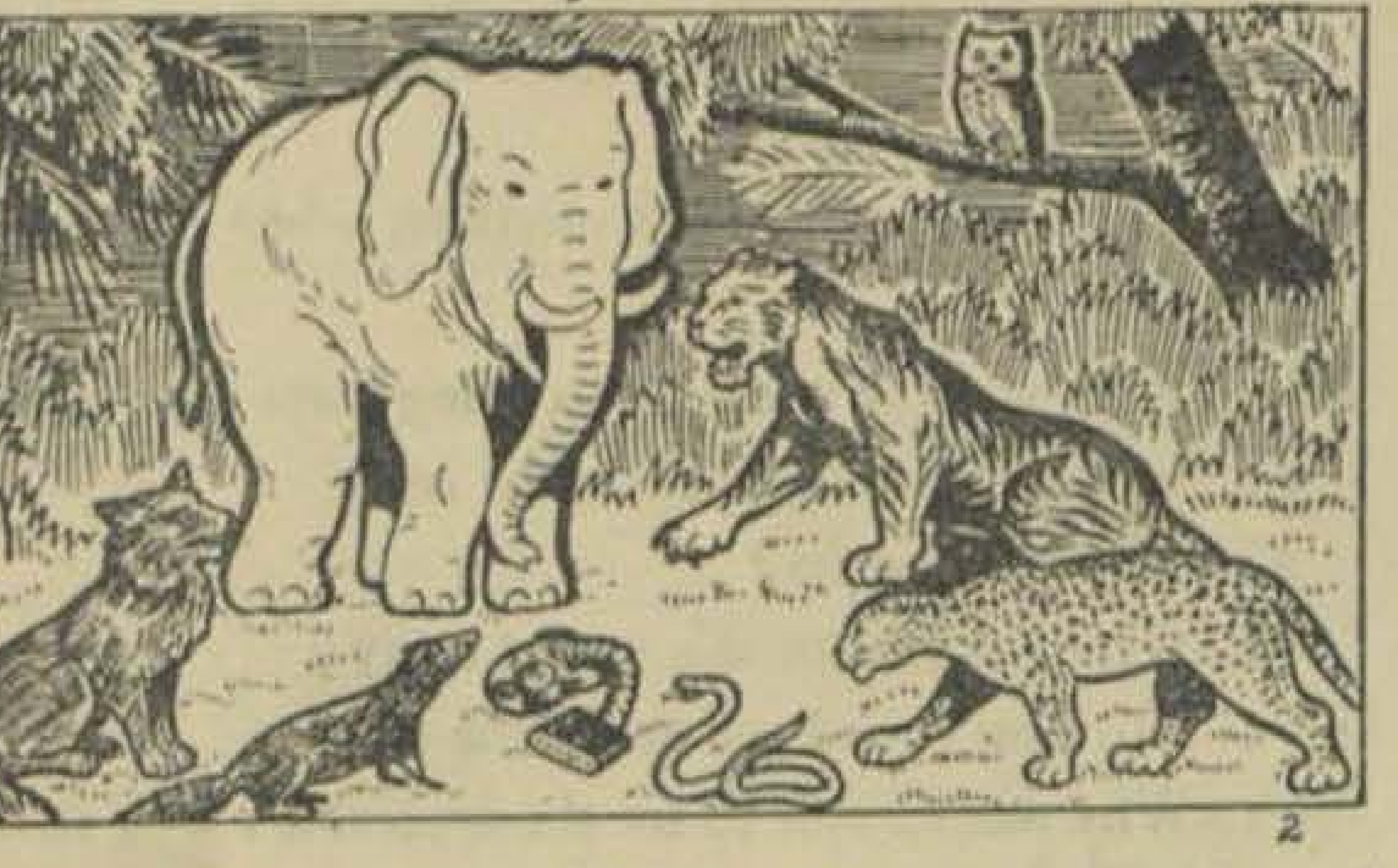
Seatwork

Put down 'true' or 'false' whichever is right against these statements :

1. A lance-naik has two stripes on his uniform . . .
2. The rank of a lance-naik is higher than the rank of a naik . . .
3. We get cotton from an animal . . .
4. The sun comes up in the east . . .

Unit 2: A Strange Argument

strange, certain, doubt



A. In the middle of Africa there is a river named the Congo. It is a great river, long and wide, and the land on the two sides is full of woods. The trees in this jungle are so tall and so near one another that the sun never comes through. In the jungle it is dark even when the sun is high in the sky, and there is rain every day in the year. It is not like any other country which you have seen or of which you have knowledge; it is a very strange country. There are no towns or villages, no roads or houses—only dark woods stretching for miles and miles.

B. In these woods there are all sorts of strange animals and strange insects. They are not like any of the animals or insects which you have seen before or of which you have knowledge. Some of the snakes in these woods are thirty yards long, and some of the insects are the size of rats.

C. Living in these woods are some of the strangest men on the face of the earth. These men are not more than three feet tall. They make their houses not on the earth as we do, because there is not enough space to make houses on. They make their houses on the branches of trees, as monkeys do. These men are named 'pigmies.' The sense of the word *pigmy* is "very small."

D. One day, in one of these dark woods, a group of animals came across a gas-mask on the earth. How did the gas-mask get there? It was very strange. No troops had ever been in this part of Africa. Maybe the gas-mask was dropped from an airplane while it was flying overhead.

E. The animals took a good look at the gas-mask. They had never seen anything like a gas-mask before; it was a strange thing to them. "What might this strange thing be?" said the animals among themselves, and they took another good look at the gas-mask.

F. "Maybe," said the wolf, "it is the face of a dead elephant." "What?" said the elephant, getting angry. "I am quite certain it is not the face of an elephant. There is no question of 'maybe.' I have no doubt about it." "Why do you say you are certain that it is not the face of an elephant?" said the deer. "Because," said the elephant, pointing to the 'tube' of the gas-mask, "my trunk is much longer and wider than this thing. To me it seems like the back part of a dead tiger. I have no doubt that it is the back part of a tiger."

G. "What?" said the tiger, coming forward. "I am quite certain it is not the back part of a tiger. I have no doubt about it." "Why do you say you are certain that it is not the back part of a tiger?" said the leopard. "Because," said the tiger, pointing to the tube of the gas-mask, "my tail has hair on it, but this thing has no hair on it. To me it seems like a sort of dead snake. I have no doubt that it is a sort of snake."

H. "What?" said the snake. "Why, I am quite certain it is not a sort of snake. I have no doubt about it." "And what makes you certain that it is not a sort of snake?" said the mongoose. "Because," said the snake, pointing to the tube of the gas-mask, "a snake has a soft skin, but the skin of this thing is hard. To me it seems like the mouth of a crocodile." None of the animals had any doubt that it was right and the others were wrong. As the discussion went on they got angrier and angrier, and it seemed as if from words they might come to blows.

I. "You are all wrong," said a voice from a branch of a tree. "What is the use of fighting over something about which not one of you has any certain knowledge?" Looking up, the animals saw that it was the owl which was talking—the wisest of all the animals or birds living in the woods. The owl had been watching all the time and laughing at the discussion to himself. "It is not the face of an elephant or the back part of a tiger or the body of a snake," it said. "It is a gas-mask." "A gas-mask?" said the rest of the animals. "What is a gas-mask?"

J. "A gas-mask," said the owl in answer, "is something which men put on when they are fighting one another in a war." "Who are men and what is war?" said the animals. "Men are living beings who go about on two legs," said the owl. "And every twenty years or so one group of men make war on another. In these wars such things as airplanes, tanks and poison gas are used. And what you see on the earth is a gas-mask, the use of which is to keep a man safe from poison gas."

K. "We are certain that what you are saying is false," said the animals. "This is not a gas-mask and there are no such beings as men. You are saying things which are not true. We are going to put you out of the wood and not let you come back again."

So saying they all made an attempt to get at the poor old owl on the branch of the tree. But before they were able to get at the owl it went flying up in the air and said in a quiet voice, "You may not let me come back again. But what I have said is true all the same."

Is there any doubt about it ?

A1 : Where is the river Congo ?
2 : What sort of river is it ?
3 : What sort of land does it go through ?
4 : Why is it dark in the jungle even when the sun is high ?
5 : Is there much rain in the jungle ?
6 : Why is it such a strange country ?
7 : How is it different from those countries which you have seen ?

B1 : Why would the animals and insects of these woods seem so strange to you ?
2 : How are the snakes and insects different from those in India ?

C1 : Are there any men living in these woods ?
2 : What sort of men are they ?
3 : Why do you say they are strange men ?
4 : Where do they make their houses ?
5 : Why do they make their houses on the branches of trees ?
6 : What are these men named ?
7 : What is the sense of 'pigmy' ?

D1 : What did the animals see in the woods one day ?
2 : Had any troops ever been in this part of Africa ?
3 : How did the gas-mask get there ?

E1 : Why did the animals take a good look at it ?
2 : What did the animals say among themselves ?

F1 : Who was certain that it wasn't the face of an elephant ?
2 : Did the elephant have any doubts that it was not the trunk of an elephant ?
3 : What question did the deer put to the elephant ?
4 : How was the 'tube' of the gas-mask different from the elephant's trunk ?
5 : What did the elephant say the gas-mask was ?
6 : Did the elephant have any doubt that it was the back part of a tiger ?

G1 : Who was certain that it wasn't the back part of a tiger ?
2 : What question did the leopard put to the tiger ?
3 : How was the 'tube' of the gas-mask different from the tiger's tail ?
4 : What did the tiger say the gas-mask was ?
5 : Did the tiger have any doubts that it was a sort of dead snake ?

H1 : Who was certain that it wasn't a snake ?
2 : What question did the mongoose put to the snake ?
3 : How was the skin of the tube of the gas-mask different from the skin of a snake ?
4 : What did the snake say the gas-mask was ?

I1 : What did the voice coming from a tree say ?
2 : Whose voice was it ?
3 : What sort of bird is the owl ?
4 : What was it doing while the discussion was going on ?
5 : What did he say the strange thing was ?

J1 : What is a gas-mask ? Give the words used by the owl to say what it is.
2 : What did the owl say about men ?
3 : What sort of things are used by men when they make war on one another ?
4 : What is the use of a gas-mask ?

K1 : What did the animals say on hearing this ?
2 : What did they say they would do to the owl ?
3 : What did they make an attempt to do ?
4 : Were they able to get at the owl ?
5 : Why weren't they able to get at him ?
6 : What did the owl say when he went off ?
7 : Is there any doubt that what the owl said was true ?

P1 : Are you certain that (that) (is) your (turban) ?
S : Turban : pagree, hat, shirt, trousers, socks, boots, books, etc.

2 : Lal is certain to come first in the (running) competition.
S : Running : jumping, swimming, shooting, cycling, etc.

3 : Tomorrow there will be an inspection. Make certain that your (rifle) (is) quite clean.
S : Rifle : boots, buttons, etc.

4 : I have done very well in my (Urdu) test. I have no doubt that I will get through it.
S : Urdu : shooting, map-reading, English, etc.

5 : He says that this (cotton) is very good. But I have doubts about it.
S : Cotton : silk, wool, paper, watch, soap, etc.

6 : It would be very strange if the sun (came up) in the (west) tomorrow.
S : Came up : went down.
West : north, south, east.

Unit 3: Some Of Our Needs

sleep, awake, trouble, comb, need



A. It is two o'clock at night. Sami and Menon are in bed. Sami's eyes are shut; he is making a loud noise while he is breathing in and out. Sami is sleeping. Is Menon sleeping? No, Menon is not sleeping; he is awake. His eyes are wide open. Why is Menon not able to get any sleep? What is keeping him awake? He is rubbing his stomach with his right hand. Maybe he has a pain in his stomach and it is the pain which is keeping him awake.

B. Last night Sami and Menon got into bed at ten o'clock. Five minutes later Sami went to sleep. But Menon was not able to get any sleep. He has been awake now for four hours. He is not feeling very happy. He had no sleep last night; he had no sleep the night before. He has had no sleep for two nights. Tonight it is the pain in the stomach which is keeping him awake. Last night and the night before it was the mosquitoes which kept him awake. They made a loud buzzing noise. They gave him much trouble. He had put up his mosquito net, but there was a little hole in it through which the mosquitoes kept coming in. They gave him such trouble that he was not able to have even a minute's sleep. So this morning he got the hole stitched up. The mosquitoes are not troubling him tonight. It is the pain in his stomach which is keeping him awake.

C. It is six o'clock in the morning. Sami and Menon have got up. They have had a wash and some tea. They are now getting ready to go on parade. They have combs in their hands and two looking-glasses in front of them. They are combing their hair with the combs. Sami is parting his hair in the middle with his comb and Menon is parting his hair on the left side. After combing their hair they will give it a brush. Then they will get ready for parade.

D. Menon is not looking very well. There are dark circles round his eyes. It is clear he has had no sleep for some time. Without good sleep at night no man will ever be strong and healthy. We all have a need for a number of things. We have a need for food. We have a need for water. We have a need for air. And we have a need for sleep and rest. These are the five greatest needs of men. Without food, water, air, sleep and rest we would not be able to go on living for more than a short time. We have other needs as well. We have a need for clothing. We have a need for houses. Men living in towns have a need for good roads and bright lights on their roads.

E. Different groups of men have different needs. Civilians have no need for tanks or machine-guns. But the Army has a great need for tanks and machine-guns. When a country is at war the needs of the Army come first. We take care to see that the Army has enough food, clothing and ammunition to go on fighting. Things such as tanks, machine-guns, anti-tank and anti-aircraft guns, which are not needed in peace-time, are produced in great numbers.

A1: What time is it?
2: Where are Sami and Menon?
3: Are Sami's eyes open or shut?
4: What sort of noise is he making while breathing?
5: Is Sami sleeping or is he awake?
6: Is Menon sleeping or is he awake?
7: What is Menon doing?
8: What may be keeping him awake?

B1: What time did Sami and Menon get into bed last night?
2: What was Sami doing five minutes later?
3: Was Menon able to get any sleep?
4: How long has he been awake?
5: Why isn't Menon feeling happy?
6: How long hasn't he had any sleep?
7: What is keeping him awake tonight?
8: What kept him awake last night and the night before?
9: What sort of noise did the mosquitoes make?
10: What did they do to Menon?
11: How did they get through the mosquito net which he put up?
12: Why wasn't he able to get any sleep?
13: What did he do to the mosquito net in the morning?
14: Are the mosquitoes troubling him tonight?
15: What is keeping him awake then?

C1: What time in the morning is it?
2: Are Sami and Menon still in bed?
3: Have they had a wash?
4: Have they had their tea?
5: Where are they getting ready to go?

6: What have they in their hands and in front of them?

7: What are they doing with the combs?

8: Where is Sami parting his hair?

9: Where is Menon parting his hair?

10: What will they do to their hair after combing it?

D1: Who is not looking well?

2: What makes it clear to us that Menon has had no sleep?

3: What sort of man would you be without sleep?

4: What are the five greatest needs of every one of us?

5: Would we be able to go on living without them?

6: What are our other needs?

7: What are the needs of men living in towns?

E1: Have all groups of men the same needs?

2: What sort of men have no need for tanks or machine-guns?

3: What group of men has a great need for these things?

4: Whose needs would come first in war-time?

5: What do we take care to see the Army gets in war-time?

6: What things are produced in great numbers when a country is fighting?

7: Are these things needed in peace-time?

P1: Did you have a good sleep (last night)?

S: Last night: the night before, on Monday, etc.

2: He goes to sleep on (the) (floor).

S: Floor: charpoy, cot.

3: Between (one and two) last night I was sleeping.

S: One and two: any other time.

4: Were you awake at (eleven) last night or were you sleeping?

S: Eleven: any other hour.

5: The noise of the (machine-guns) kept me awake all last night.

S: Machine-guns: airplanes, anti-aircraft guns, thunder, etc.

6: The (mosquitoes) were troubling me last night. I was not able to get any sleep at all.

S: Mosquitoes: rats, bugs.

7: Where do you take your (car) when the engine is giving trouble?

S: Car: lorry, truck, jeep, etc.

8: What do you do when you have (tooth) trouble?

S: Tooth: eye, throat, stomach.

9: We got all the (women) out of the town without trouble from the enemy.

S: Women: boys and girls, old men and women, food, ammunition, etc.

10: Is there a need for (bullocks) on a farm?

S: Bullocks: cows, ploughs, seeds, fertilizers, etc.

11: What do you do when you are in need of (a) (pencil)?

N: Answer: I go to the (canteen and get a pencil).

S: Pencil: pen, book, stick, foot-rule, rubber, ink, paper, cloth, amusement.

12: For a game of (hockey) (hockey sticks) are needed.

S: Hockey, hockey sticks: tennis, tennis racquets; cricket, cricket bats; etc.

M1: Ready For Sleep

LAL SINGH: Ram Singh! Are you still reading?

RAM SINGH: Yes.

LAL SINGH: Your eyes are half shut; you're ready for sleep. Go to bed.

RAM SINGH: I will when I get to the end of the page which I'm reading.

2: Put to Bed

SITA: Where's the baby, Kamala?

KAMALA: He's playing on the floor in the other room.

SITA: Still awake? It's time for his sleep. Put him to bed. I'm getting the meal ready.

3: Troubling With Questions

KAMALA: Please take Gopal away, mother. He keeps troubling me with his questions. I'm unable to do my work.

SITA: Don't give her trouble, Gopal. Let her do her work.

GOPAL: I'm not troubling her, mother; I'm only putting some questions to her.

SITA: But you're not letting her do her work. Keep your questions for later.

4: Get Into Trouble

GANPAT: This is the second time in a week you have been late for roll-call, Dondu. You're certain to get into trouble with the sergeant this time.

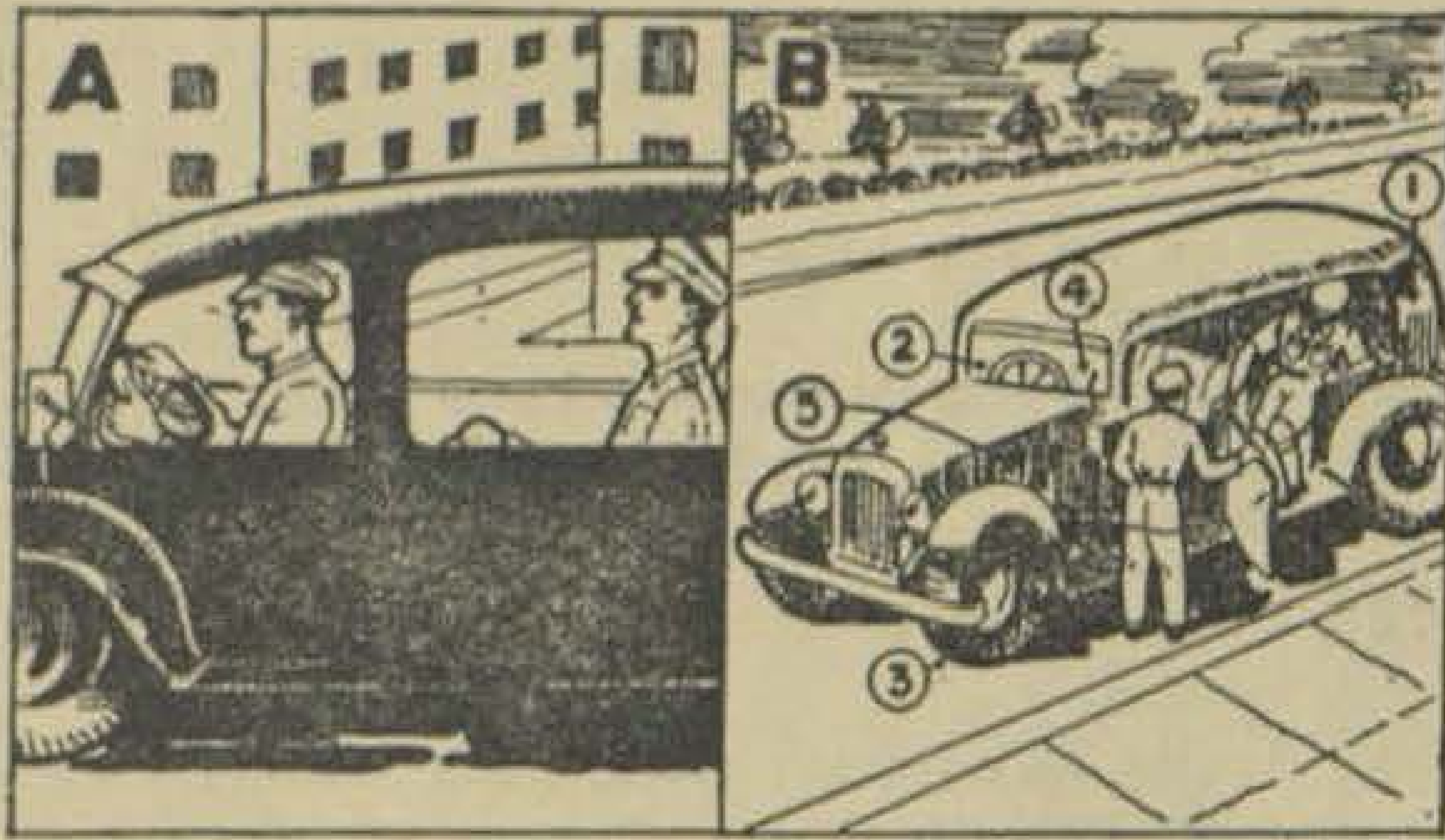
DONDU: Oh, he'll let me off.

GANPAT: He won't. He'll certainly give you a punishment.

DONDU: We'll see.

Unit 4 : Driving In A Taxi

driving, stop, brake, engine



4

A. The man in the front seat of the taxi is the driver. He is driving the taxi. His hands are on a wheel. This wheel is for turning the taxi to the left or right. It is the driving wheel. The man in the back seat is an officer. The taxi-driver is driving the officer to a hotel in the town. He is a very good driver. He has been driving this taxi for fifteen years and has never been in a smash.

When they get to the hotel the officer will say "Stop!" The driver will put the brake on and the taxi will come to a stop in front of the hotel.

B. The taxi has now come to a stop and the officer is getting out of the taxi. The officer is very pleased with the driver and his taxi and says that when he is in need of a taxi again he will send for him. The officer is stopping in this hotel for seven days.

C. Have you ever taken a good look at the different parts of a car or a taxi? Take a good look at this taxi. The different parts of the taxi are all marked in the picture. Number one is the body of the taxi; number two is the driving-wheel; number three is a tyre. Number four is the hand-brake. The foot-brake is used for stopping the taxi or for making it go more slowly down a slope. You put the hand-brake on by giving it a pull. You put the foot-brake on by pushing it down with your foot. Before taking your car out you have to take care to see that the brakes are all right. If the brakes are not all right you may not be able to make the car come to a stop quickly and there may be a smash. One of the first things which a driver does before taking his car out is to make certain that the brakes are all right. He does two other things. He sees that there is enough petrol in the tank and enough water in the 'radiator.'

Number five is the engine of the car. It is the engine which makes a car go. Sometimes the engine may give trouble. If you are certain about what is wrong with the engine you may be able to put it right yourself. But if you haven't a good knowledge of an engine and its different parts you will be in doubt about what is wrong. Then you will have to take your car to a 'garage,' where one of the men will go over the engine with care and see what is stopping the car from going.

A1 : Who is in the front seat of the taxi?
2 : What is he doing?
3 : Where are his hands?
4 : What is the wheel for?
5 : What sort of wheel is it?
6 : Who is in the back seat?
7 : Where is the taxi-driver driving him?
8 : What sort of driver is he?
9 : Why do you say he is a good driver?
10 : To whom will the officer say "Stop!"
11 : What will the driver do on hearing the officer say, "Stop"?
12 : Where will the taxi come to a stop?

B1 : The taxi has now come to a stop. What is the officer doing?
2 : Why will the officer send for the same taxi again?
3 : When will he send for it again?
4 : How long is the officer stopping at the hotel?

C1 : What has been marked number one in the picture of the taxi?
2 : What has been marked number two?
3 : What has been marked number three?
4 : What has been marked number four?
5 : What is the brake used for?
6 : How do you put the brake on?
7 : When must you take care to see the brakes are all right?
8 : Why have you to take care to see they are all right?
9 : What is one of the first things a driver does before taking his car out?
10 : What are the other two things he does?
11 : What part of the car is number five in the picture?
12 : What is the work of the engine?
13 : If the engine was giving trouble would you be able to put it right yourself?
14 : If you had any doubts about what was wrong what would you do?
15 : What would be done to your car in the 'garage'?

P1 : He is very tired. He has been driving a (taxi) for ten hours without a rest.

S : Taxi : car, lorry, truck, jeep, tank, engine, bullock-cart.

2: He is driving the (sheep) back to the farm.

S: Sheep: goats, cows, horses, fowls.

3: They go on (working) from six to twelve without a stop in the middle.

S: Working: playing, fishing.

4: The (taxi) came to a stop in front of the C.O.'s office.

S: Taxi: lorry, bus, etc.

5: Every (bus) has to make a ten-minute stop at this place.

S: Bus: car, taxi, etc.

6: We are stopping at this (hotel) for a week.

S: Hotel: place, camp, station, town, village.

7: On my way to the office I was stopped by a (policeman).

S: Policeman: sergeant, man in uniform.

Seat-work (Units 1-4)

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces:*

true, false, strange, certain, doubt, sleep, awake, trouble, comb, need, driving, stop, brake, engine.

1. I am..........................that I have made no error.
2. He is parting his hair with a..........................
3. If the..........................are not all right you may not be able to make the car go more slowly down a slope.
4. It is..........................that the man is wounded; I myself saw the doctor putting a dressing on the wound.
5. I have no..........................that I am right and you are wrong.
6. He was..........................the car very quickly.
7. In India we make our..........................on the floor.
8. Something is wrong with the..........................; I am not able to make the car go.
9. We have a greater..........................for food than for sleep.
10. They have been fighting for ten days without a.....
11. I was not able to get any sleep last night; I was ....all the time.
12. The news that there was an air raid on our town is..........................; there has been no raid for the last seven days.
13. Our cow has given birth to a very.......................... calf; it has two heads and five legs.
14. Our servant is more a..........................than a help; his work is very bad and he keeps falling ill.

B. *Put the right word in the spaces:*

1. I did not..........................a good sleep last night.
2. Will you please..........................the baby to bed?
3. I..........................to sleep the minute I got into bed.
4. Your eyes are half shut; you are..........................for sleep.
5. They..........................awake till twelve last night.
6. It was the coffee which..........................me awake for three hours last night.
7. Why not..........................certain at what time the train goes out?
8. I am certain..........................getting his help.
9. I..........................no doubt that it is an enemy plane.
10. Have you any doubts..........................it?
11. If you are..........................doubt why not make certain that you are right?
12. The workers are..........................trouble.
13. I have had no trouble..........................my servant for some time.
14. If you keep on driving on the wrong side you will..........................trouble with the police.
15. He..........................much trouble..........................his work.
16. You..........................no need for a blanket in the summer.
17. Plants, like men, have a need..........................sunlight and air.
18. I am..........................great need..........................rest.
19. This is a bus stop; the buses..........................a stop here.
20. The train..........................to a complete stop one mile from the station.

C. *Put the right form of the right word from this list in the spaces:*

sleep, trouble, comb, need, stop.

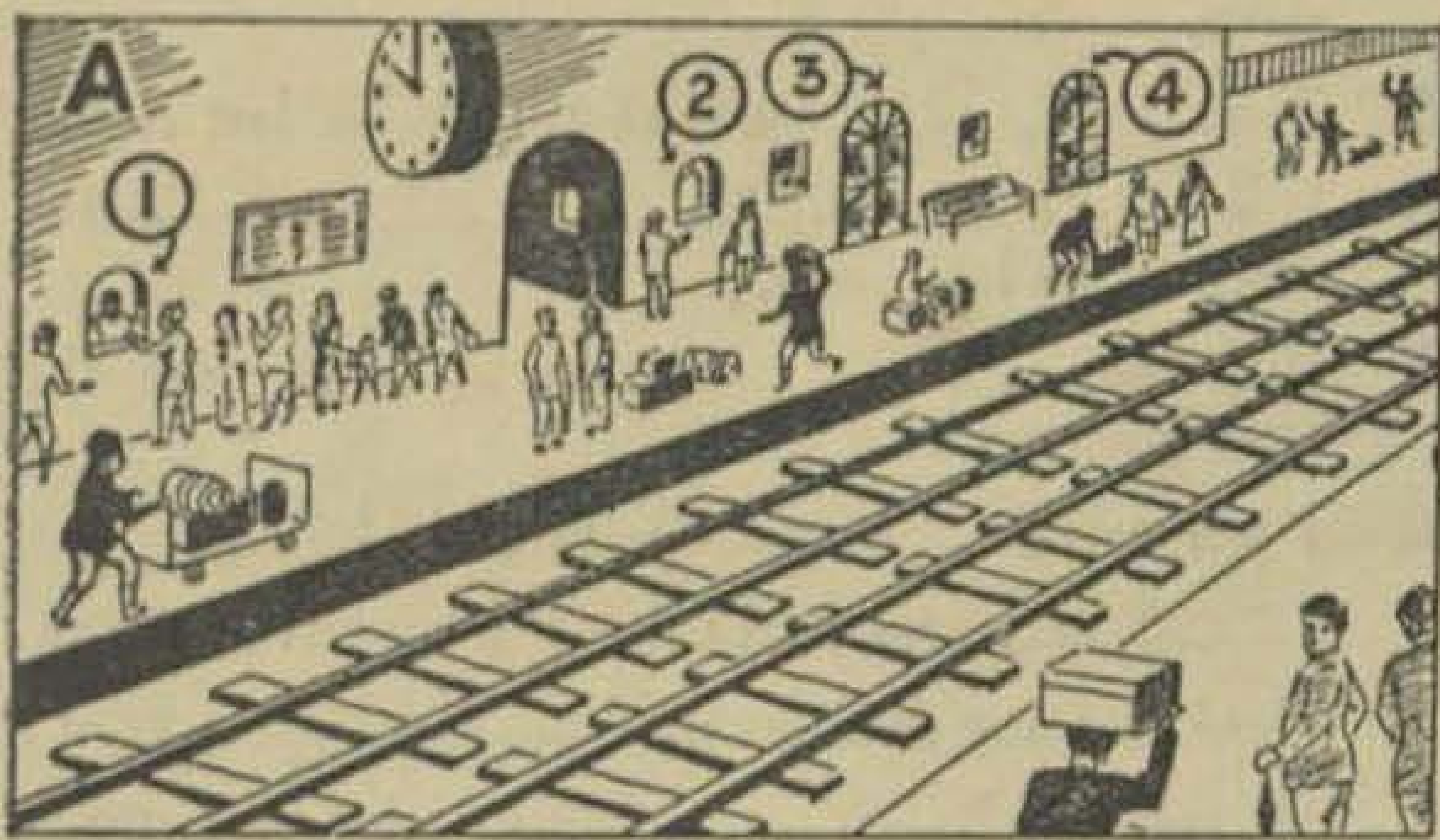
1. How long are you..........................in this place?
2. Before..........................his hair he puts oil on it.
3. A change of air is badly..........................
4. The car was..........................by a policeman.
5. He is..........................on a charpoy.
6. The mosquitoes keep..........................me.
7. Were you..........................by the noise last night?

D. *Put right the errors in these statements:*

1. He is driving a taxi for the last two years.
2. She is combing her hair for twenty minutes now.
3. We are stopping here for the last fourteen days.
4. He is sleeping for ten hours now.
5. The man is troubling me for six months now.

Unit 5: A Railway Station

station, waiting, porter, whistle



A. This is the inside of a railway station. There are two platforms. On one platform there are a great number of persons. What are these persons doing on the platform? They are waiting for the train to Lahore. It is ten o'clock now and the train to Lahore will come in at twenty minutes past ten. Some of the persons on the platform have been waiting for the Lahore train for more than an hour. Not all the persons on the platform are waiting to go to Lahore; some of them are waiting for friends who are coming here on the same train. In these days the trains are late almost every day. They keep us waiting sometimes for hours and hours.

B. Among the persons waiting on the platform are railway porters. You will be able to make them out by their uniform. A railway porter is of the greatest help to us when we are going from one place to another. For an anna or two a porter will put your things into a railway carriage or get your things out. At every railway station there are porters waiting on the platform or at the door to take your things from one place to another.

C. The railway station has a number of rooms. Room number one is the booking-office. That is the place from which we get our tickets. The booking clerk is seated near the window. Outside the room, on the other side of the window, are a long line of persons waiting to get their tickets.

Room number two is the telegraph office. If you have a telegram to send this is where you go to send it. There is a telegraph clerk at the window to whom you give your message, on a telegraph form, and the money.

Room number three and room number four are waiting rooms. If the train is late or if you are tired you may go into one of these waiting rooms and have a rest there. There is a first and second class waiting room and a third class waiting room. The first and second class waiting room is for persons who have a first class or a second class ticket and the third class waiting room is for persons who have a third class ticket.



D. The train is coming. That dark little point which you see on the railway line more than two furlongs away is the engine. The driver has put the brake on and the train is going more and more slowly. When the train comes into the station it will make a stop. As a rule the Lahore train makes a five-minute stop at this station. But today there are such a number of soldiers getting in and getting out of the train that it will be stopped for more than fifteen minutes. It is coming nearer and nearer and those waiting on the platform are getting ready to get into the train.

E. The train has now come to a stop. Some persons are getting into the train; others are getting out of the train. Still others are running up and down looking for seats. Porters are going about with boxes and bedding on their heads. There is much noise because the men are all talking to one another at the top of their voices. A man in front of a third class carriage is having an argument with a porter about his payment.

F. Who is the man who is walking up and down the platform in a white uniform? He has a green flag and a red flag in his right hand and a whistle in his left hand. It is the 'guard.' He is walking up and down saying, "Take your places, please!" When everyone has got in and it is time for the train to go he will put his whistle to his mouth and the train will go. What are the flags for? The red flag is for stopping the train. When the guard puts up the red flag the train is stopped. The green flag is to make the train go. When the guard puts up the green flag the engine-driver will make the train go.

A1 : What's this the inside of?
2 : What's the number of platforms?
3 : What's on one platform?
4 : What are the men doing on this platform?
5 : At what time will the train to Lahore come in?
6 : How long have some of these men been waiting for the train to Lahore?

7 : Are all the men on the platform waiting to go to Lahore ?

8 : For whom are some of the men waiting ?

9 : Do all the trains come in time these days ?

10 : How long do they keep us waiting sometimes ?

B1 : How are you able to make out the porters from the others who are waiting on the platform ?

2 : Who is of the greatest help to us when we are going from one station to another ?

3 : How much money do you give a porter for putting your things into a railway carriage ?

4 : Whom do you see waiting at the door or on the platform of every railway station ?

C1 : What is room number one ?

2 : Who is seated near the window ?

3 : Who is outside the room ?

4 : What are they waiting for ?

5 : What is room number two ?

6 : Where do you send a telegram from ?

7 : Where is the telegraph clerk ?

8 : What do you give him when you have a telegram to send ?

9 : What are rooms number three and four ?

10 : What are they for ?

11 : What different sorts of waiting room are there ?

12 : For whom is a first-class waiting room ?

13 : For whom is a second class waiting room ?

14 : For whom is a third class waiting room ?

D1 : What's the dark little point which you see on the railway lines more than two furlongs away ?

2 : What is making the train go more and more slowly ?

3 : Who has put the brake on ?

4 : What will the train do when it comes into the station ?

5 : How long is the Lahore train stopped at this station ?

6 : Why will the train be stopped for more than fifteen minutes today ?

7 : What are the men waiting on the platform getting ready to do ?

E1 : Has the train come to a stop ?

2 : What are some men doing ?

3 : What are others doing ?

4 : Why are some men running up and down the platform ?

5 : What have the porters on their heads ?

6 : Why is there so much noise ?

7 : With whom is the man in front of a third-class compartment having an argument ?

8 : What is the argument about ?

F1 : What's the colour of the guard's uniform ?

2 : What has he in his right hand ?

3 : Where is the whistle ?

4 : What's he saying while he is walking up and down ?

5 : What is the whistle for ?

6 : What is the red flag for ?

7 : What is the green flag for ?

8 : Who makes the engine go ?

P1 : I am waiting for my (friend). He will be back in five minutes.

S : Friend : officer, father, mother, brother, sister, etc.

2 : The men are waiting in a line to get their (pay).

S : Pay : cigarettes, mosquito nets, blankets, etc.

3 : He has been waiting for his friend for the last (forty) minutes. His friend has still not come.

S : Forty : thirty, thirty-five, forty-five, etc.

4 : My house is (two) miles from a station.

S : Two : any other number.

M : Getting A Ticket

RAM [*at station in Bombay*] : Here we are Sita.

PORTER : Porter, sir ?

RAM : Yes, Madras Express.

PORTER : The train will be in at No. 10 platform, sir.

RAM : You take our things to the train ; I'll get the tickets.

PORTER [*going*] : Yes, sir.

RAM : Porter !

PORTER : Yes, sir.

RAM : Where is the booking office ?

PORTER [*pointing*] : Over there, sir. Better be quick, sir—there's a long line waiting for tickets.

RAM : Come on, Menon . . . [*At the window after a time*] : Two tickets to Madras, please.

CLERK : That will be thirty-five rupees.

RAM : Here are thirty-five rupees.

CLERK [*giving*] : Here are the tickets and here is the change.

RAM : Thank you ! . . . Come on, let us go to No. 10 platform.

Unit 6 : Making A Journey

start, journey, transport



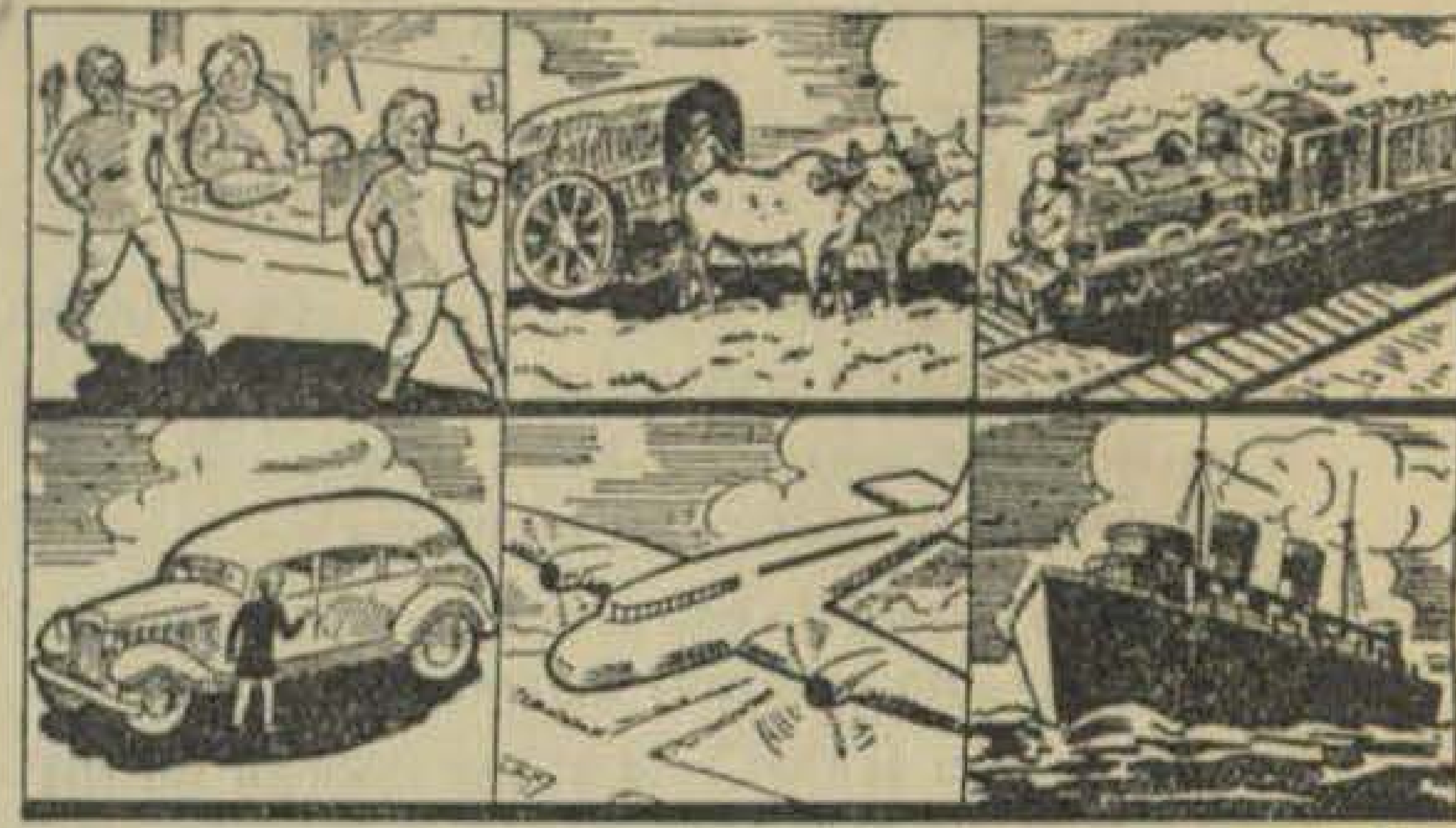
A. A number of sepoys are getting ready to go to a 'demonstration farm.' Some are putting on their trousers ; others are putting on their boots ; still others are putting on their pugrees. The war has now come to an end and in a short time these sepoys will go back to their homes ; they will be 'demobilized.'

Among the sepoys in the picture are some who were in the war from its start in September 1939. The war was started on September 1st, the day on which the Germans made their attack on Poland. Some of the other sepoys came into the Army only after the war in the Pacific was started by Japan on December 7, 1941, when the Japanese made an attack on Pearl Harbour. But the sepoys are all very happy that the war has now come to an end. They are now being taken round the country to see some of the great factories and demonstration farms.

The sepoys in the picture are getting ready to go. The bus is at the door. In another five or ten minutes they will make a start. It is only six o'clock in the morning. But the sepoys are making an early start because if they make an early start they will be able to get back to the camp in time for their mid-day meal.

B. The sepoys are now in the bus and the driver is starting the engine by turning the 'cranking handle' in front of the bus round and round. This is one way of starting an engine. But there is another way in which an engine may be started. In this second sort of bus the driver does not have to keep turning the cranking handle round and round. He has only to give the button in front of his seat a push and the engine is started. This button is the 'self-starter.' One push and the engine is started by itself.

C. The distance between the camp and the demonstration farm is thirty miles. If the sepoys make a start at six o'clock they will get to the demonstration farm at half past seven. The journey from the camp to the demonstration farm will take only an hour and a half. The same journey in a bullock cart would take ten or eleven hours. A journey in a bus is about seven times quicker than a journey in a bullock cart.



D. Today, if you have to go from one place to another, you may make your journey in a bus or a train or maybe in an airplane. But years back there were no buses or trains or airplanes. Then men had to make their journey on foot or on horse-back or in carriages pulled by horses. A distance of twenty miles seemed a long distance ; it took about four to five hours to go twenty miles. Today even the distance between India and England, which is six thousand miles, does not seem a very long distance. If you make the journey by sea it will take you only two weeks to get to England ; if you make the journey in an airplane it may take you less than three days.

E. Men and goods may be transported (taken from one place to another) by road or by railway or by sea or by air. We have transport by railway, transport by sea and transport by air. Of all these different forms of transport air transport is the quickest. War today is different from war in the old days because men and goods may be transported from one place to another in motor vehicles, steamships and airplanes. A hundred years back 100,000 men seemed a great army, but today we are able to keep a million men in the field far away from the base and send them food, clothing and ammunition because of motor vehicles, steamships and airplanes.

A1 : Where are the sepoys getting ready to go ?
2 : What are they putting on ?
3 : Why will these sepoys be demobilised in a short time ?
4 : Have any of the sepoys in the picture been in the war from the start ?
5 : When was the war started ?
6 : What did the Germans do on that day ?
7 : When did other sepoys come into the Army ?
8 : How did Japan start the war in the Pacific ?
9 : When was it started ?
10 : What are the sepoys' feelings now that the war has come to an end ?

11 : Why are they being taken round the country ?

12 : What is ready for them at the door ?

13 : When will they make a start ?

14 : What time is it now ?

15 : Why are they making such an early start ?

B1 : Where are the sepoys now ?

2 : Who is starting the engine ?

3 : How is he starting the engine ?

4 : How does the driver get the engine started in the other sort of bus ?

5 : Where is the self-starter ?

C1 : What distance do the sepoys have to go ?

2 : At what time will they get to the demonstration farm ?

3 : How long will the journey take ?

4 : How long would the same journey take in a bullock cart ?

5 : How much quicker is a bus than a bullock cart ?

D1 : What are the different ways of making a journey these days ?

2 : How did men make a journey before there were buses, trams and airplanes ?

3 : Why did a distance of twenty miles seem so long then ?

4 : What is the distance between India and England ?

5 : How long will the sea journey take ?

6 : How long will a journey by air take ?

E1 : Men and goods are transported by road. What are the other three forms of transport ?

2 : Which is the quickest form of transport ?

3 : Why is war today different from war in the old days ?

4 : When did 100,000 men seem a great army ?

5 : Why are we now able to keep a million men in the field far from the base ?

P1 : I saw the (tennis match) from start to end.

S : Tennis match : cricket match, football match, etc.

2 : You have not done any (reading) today. Make a start now.

S : Reading : writing, arithmetic.

3 : We made a start for the (demonstration farm) at (six) o'clock.

S : Demonstration farm : factory, fort, etc.
Six : half past six, seven, etc.

4 : I am going to make a (bag). If I make a start with the bag now I will have it ready the day after tomorrow.

S : Bag : coat, shirt, curtain, basket.

5 : We are starting for the (station) at (six) tomorrow.

S : Station : camp, town, village, shooting range.

6 : They are starting a (factory) in a short time.

S : Factory : mill, collective farm, newspaper, bank.

7 : When was this (mill) started ?

S : Mill : factory, etc., as in 6.

8 : When was the war between (England) and (Germany) started ?

S : England, Germany : Germany and Russia, America and Japan.

9 : The journey between my (house) and my (office) takes (twenty) minutes.

S : House, office : house, factory ; house, station ; etc.
Twenty : twenty-five, etc.

10 : I sometimes make the journey by (bullock cart).

S : Bullock cart : car, train, tram, bus, airplane.

11 : Transport by (bus) is quicker than transport by (railway).

S : Bus, railway : airplane, bus ; airplane, railway.

12 : Today (men) are transported by road and railway.

S : Men : goods, ammunition, supplies, medicines, etc.

Seatwork (Units 5-6)

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :*

station, waiting, porter, whistle, start, journey, transport.

1. I saw the regimental sports from............................to end.
2. In the old days the..............................from Delhi to Benares took over a week.
3. The man who puts your things into a railway carriage at a station is a..............................
4. When the guard puts the..............................to his mouth the train will make a start.
5. I sent my friend a letter a month back. I am still ....for his answer.

B. *Put the right word in the spaces :*

1. He is waiting..his friend.
2. When the time is up the guard..........................a whistle.
3. At what time are you..a start ?
4. We..............................the journey by train yesterday.
5. He is going..............................a journey round the earth.

C. *Here are some answers. Put down the questions to which they are the answers :*

1. ....

   I am waiting for my mother.

2. ....

   She has been waiting here for an hour.

3. ....

   This bank was started by my friend.

Unit 7 : The Cause of Disease

disease, common, cause, medical



A. Sami is ill in an Army hospital. The doctor has taken his temperature. His temperature is 105 degrees ; Sami has very high fever. The doctor is saying to the nurse that it is malaria. There are a number of other sepoys who are ill with malaria in this hospital.

Malaria is one sort of disease. There are a great number of other diseases. Plague is a disease. Small-pox is a disease. Dysentery is a disease. Typhoid is a disease. Cholera is a disease. Tuberculosis is a disease. Leprosy is another very bad disease, which makes a man's skin completely white. Leprosy is a disease of the skin. There are still other diseases. There are diseases of the eye, diseases of the ear, diseases of the throat, diseases of the chest and diseases of the stomach.

B. Every year millions of persons in India get malaria. Malaria is a very common disease in India. Only a small number of persons in Europe get malaria. Malaria is not common in Europe. But in India it is very common. Plague, typhoid and cholera are other diseases which are very common in India but very uncommon in Europe. Some of these diseases are more common in some parts of India than in others. Kala-azar is a disease in which one's hands and face go black. It is very common in Assam but it is very uncommon in the rest of India. Malaria is more common on hills than on stretches of level country. Some diseases, like small-pox, are more common in the cold weather than in the warm weather. Others, like typhoid, are more common in the summer, when we have the rains, than in the winter.

C. What makes men ill ? What is the cause of disease ? Different diseases have different causes. How does a man get malaria ? He gets it from the bite of an insect. Malaria is caused by the bite of an insect. Another disease which is caused by the bite of an insect is plague. But diseases like cholera, typhoid and dysentery have a different cause. They are not caused by the bite of an insect, but by dirty drinking water or food which has gone bad.



D. Strong and healthy men have little fear of getting ill or getting a disease. And how may a man be strong and healthy ? By keeping himself clean, by boiling his water, by having the right sort of food, by using a mosquito-net, and by taking care to see that his home is full of light and air. Anyone who does these things will be able to keep most of the common diseases away.

E. What do we do when we get ill ? If we are not very ill we may go and see a doctor—a medical man. If we are very ill or if we have a bad disease we may be sent to a hospital—a place where we get medical attention. In the Army there are a number of medical units. It is the duty of the men in the medical unit to see that the sepoys are strong and healthy. And when the sepoys are ill or wounded it is their duty to take care of them and make them strong and healthy again. All the medical men in the Army were trained at medical schools and have a good knowledge of the causes of disease.

F. Medical men did very good work in the war. Like the soldiers they had their 'victories.' But it was a different sort of victory—victory over disease. One of their greatest victories was over malaria. Malaria is very common in the Pacific Islands, in Malay and in Burma. When the Americans made a landing in Guadalcanal 97 men out of every 100 got malaria and had to be sent back. When the Australians made a landing in New Guinea 80 men out of every 100 got malaria and were unable to take part in the fighting. And the number of Indian and British troops who got malaria in the war in Burma was more than a quarter of a million. What made the work of fighting malaria very hard was that there was no quinine, because all our quinine had come from Java and Java was in Japanese hands.

G. So our medical men, Americans, British and Indian, went to work and after a time a medicine named 'atabrine' was produced which was even better than quinine. This is not the only way in which malaria was attacked. Another medicine—a powder named D.D.T.—was produced which was able to put to death the malaria-causing mosquito. This powder was dropped from the air on the places where the troops

had to do their fighting and so they were made safe from malaria. The outcome of all this was that later only two men out of every thousand in the Pacific got malaria.

This was one of the greatest medical victories of the war, and it may safely be said that with these two weapons—atabrine and D.D.T.—we will now be able to put an end to malaria almost completely.

A1 : Where is Sami ?
2 : Who has taken Sami's temperature ?
3 : What is Sami's temperature ?
4 : Has Sami fever ?
5 : What is wrong with Sami ?
6 : Is Sami the only man who is ill with malaria ?
7 : What is malaria ?
8 : What is plague ?
9 : Give the names of five other diseases.
10 : Which disease makes a man's skin completely white ?
11 : What sort of disease is leprosy ?
12 : What other sorts of diseases are there ?

B1 : Which disease is very common in India ?
2 : Why do you say it is very common in India ?
3 : Is malaria common in Europe ?
4 : Why do you say that it is not common in Europe ?
5 : What other diseases are very common in India ?
6 : Are they common in Europe ?
7 : Which disease makes a man's hands and face black ?
8 : Where is it very common ?
9 : Is it common in the rest of India ?
10 : Where is malaria more common—on hills or in stretches of low country ?
11 : In what sort of weather is smallpox very common ?
12 : When is typhoid very common ?

C1 : Have all diseases the same cause ?
2 : What is the cause of malaria ?
3 : How is plague caused ?
4 : How is cholera (typhoid, dysentery) caused ?

D1 : What sort of men have little fear of getting ill ?
2 : How may a man be strong and healthy ?

E1 : Whom do we see when we are ill ?
2 : Where may we be sent if we are very ill ?
3 : What sort of attention do we get at a hospital ?
4 : What do the men in a medical unit do ?
5 : Where were the men in a medical unit trained ?

F1 : What sort of victory did medical men have ?
2 : What was one of their greatest victories ?
3 : Where is malaria very common ?
4 : What did the Americans in Guadalcanal do to the men who got malaria ?
5 : Why were some of the Australians who made a landing in New Guinea unable to take part in the fighting ?
6 : What was the number of Indian troops who got malaria in Burma ?
7 : What made the work of fighting malaria very hard ?
8 : Why was there no quinine ?

G1 : Which is better, quinine or atabrine ?
2 : By whom was atabrine produced ?
3 : What medicine was able to put to death the malaria-causing mosquito ?
4 : Where was the powder dropped ?
5 : What was the outcome of all this ?
6 : With what two weapons will we be able to put an end to malaria almost completely ?

P1 : (Ram) is a very common name among (Hindus).
S : Ram, Hindus : Mahomed, Muslims ; John, Christians ; Singh, Sikhs ; Bose, Bengalis ; Prasad, Beharis ; Ramaswami, Madrassis ; etc.

2 : Our (school) is not the property of any one man ; it is the common property of all of us.
S : School : street, hockey-field, quarters, etc.

3 : My friend and I are interested in (birds). He and I have a common interest.
S : Birds : flowers, fishing, card-playing, etc.

4 : What is the cause of (day and night) ?
S : Day and night : summer and winter, rain, thunder, lightning, etc.

5 : What was the cause of yesterday's (riot) ?
S : Riot : fire, explosion, motor smash, etc.

6 : My friend's death was caused by (a wound).
S : A wound : typhoid, malaria, etc.

Seatwork

Here are some answers. Put down questions to which they may be the answers :

1. ....
He has got some sort of stomach disease.

2. ....
No, I have no disease of the throat.

3. ....
His heart is diseased.

4. ....
Hindustani is the common language of all men living in North India.

5. ....
Snakes are more common in country-places than in towns.

Unit 8 : An Error

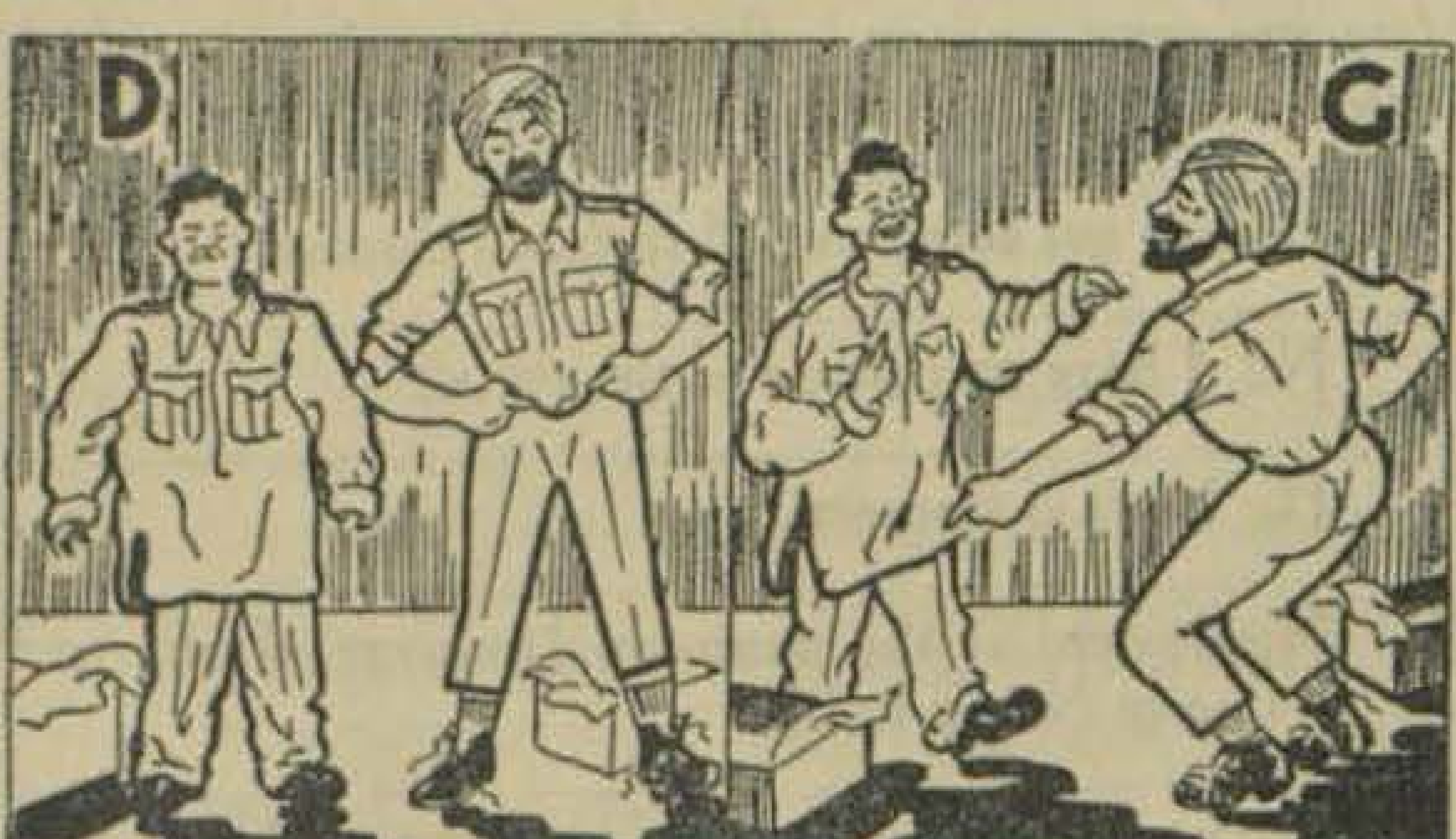
parcel, cord, list, loose, tight



A. The woman at the table is making parcels of food and clothing for prisoners-of-war in enemy countries. This is how a food parcel is made. Some food is put in brown paper and the paper is folded over the food. Then a bit of strong cord is put round the parcel and a knot is made in the cord. The parcel is then ready. There are brown paper and long bits of cord on the table to make the parcels with.

B. The woman who is making the parcels has a list of the parcels which she has to make today. Here is the list: four food parcels, ten clothing parcels, one parcel of cards, one parcel of gramophone records, six parcels of cigarettes, and five parcels of newspapers. She has to make twenty-seven parcels today. When the parcels are ready they will be sent to the Red Cross by parcel post. The woman has a list of the things which may be sent by parcel post to prisoners-of-war in an enemy country. Only things like food, clothing, cigarettes, cards and gramophone records may be sent. All these are on the list. Things which are not on the list, such as knives and maps, may not be sent.

C. The War Gifts Fund for Indian Prisoners in England did very good work in the war. Every week 10,000 parcels of food were sent to Indian prisoners-of-war in Germany. In 1944 nearly 500,000 clothing parcels were sent. Food and clothing were badly needed by the prisoners-of-war in Germany because in Germany itself there were very little food and clothing at the time.



D. Thappa and Sunder Singh are two prisoners-of-war in a prisoner-of-war camp in Germany. The camp got two clothing parcels today, one for Thappa and one for Sunder Singh. Thappa and Sunder Singh were very pleased when they got the parcels because they were in great need of clothing. This is a list of the things in Thappa's parcel: a shirt, a pair of trousers and a pair of boots. And this is a list of the things in Sunder Singh's parcel: a shirt, a pair of trousers and a pair of boots.

E. Thappa has put on the shirt, the pair of trousers and the pair of boots which were in his parcel. The shirt is not the right size. Thappa is a small man. The shirt is loose; it is longer and wider than his old shirts. The trousers are not the right size; they are loose. The boots are not the right size; they are loose. To be of the right size the shirt, the trousers and the boots will have to be made smaller. Take a good look at Thappa. If he went about in this shirt and these trousers he would be laughed at.

F. Sunder Singh has put on his shirt, his trousers and his boots. Sunder Singh is a tall man and has long arms and long legs. The shirt is not the right size; it is tight. The trousers are not the right size; they are tight. The boots are not the right size; they are tight. The collar was so tight that he was not able to do it up. To be of the right size the shirt, the trousers and the boots will have to be made longer and wider. Take a look at Sunder Singh. If he went about with this shirt and these trousers on he would be laughed at. It is quite clear that there has been an error. Thappa and Sunder Singh have been given the wrong parcels. They are very sad. Of what use are the parcels to them?

G. Thappa and Sunder Singh are not sad any more; they are happy and smiling. They have seen what the error is. Thappa has been given Sunder Singh's parcel and Sunder Singh has been given Thappa's parcel. The shirt, the trousers and the boots which Sunder Singh has on are the right size for Thappa; they will not be loose or tight. The shirt, the trousers and the boots which Thappa has on are the right size for Sunder Singh; they will not be loose or tight. Thappa will give Sunder Singh his parcel and Sunder Singh will give Thappa his parcel; the error will then be put right.

A1 : What is the woman at the table making?
2 : Who are the parcels for?
3 : How is a food parcel made?
4 : What is put round the parcel?
5 : What is made in the cord?
6 : What is on the table to make the parcels with?

B1 : What has the woman who is making the parcels a list of?
2 : What different sorts of parcels has she to make?

3: What will be done with the parcels when they are ready ?
4: What is on the other list the woman has ?
5: What sort of things may be sent to prisoners-of-war in an enemy country ?
6: What sort of things are not on the list ?

C1: Which Fund did good work in the war ?
2: What was sent to Indian prisoners-of-war every week ?
3: What was the number of clothing parcels sent in 1944 ?
4: Why was food and clothing so badly needed by the prisoners ?

D1: Where are Thappa and Sunder Singh ?
2: What came to the camp for them today ?
3: What were their feelings when they got the parcels ?
4: Why was this ?
5: What is on the list of things in Thappa's parcel ?
6: What is on the list of things in Sunder Singh's parcel ?

E1: Which of the things in the parcel has Thappa put on ?
2: What is wrong with the shirt ?
3: How is it different from his old shirts ?
4: What about the trousers (boots) ? Are they the right size ?
5: What will have to be done to the shirt (trousers, boots) ?

F1: What has Sunder Singh put on ?
2: What size are the man's arms and legs ?
3: Is the shirt (trousers, boots) the right size for him ?
4: How tight was the collar ?
5: What will have to be done to the shirt (trousers, boots) ?
6: What is quite clear ?
7: Why are Thappa and Sunder Singh very sad ?

G1: Do they seem sad now ?
2: What error has been made in the giving of the parcels ?
3: For whom will the things which Sunder Singh has on be the right size ?
4: For whom will the things which Thappa has on be the right size ?
5: So what will Thappa do with his parcel ?
6: What will Sunder Singh do with his parcel ?

P1: This is a parcel of (trousers).
S: Trousers, coats, shirts, biscuits, books, pencils, etc.
2: I am making a parcel of these (medicines).
S: Medicines: waxlights, nails, screws, picture frames, electric bulbs, etc.
3: He is going to send these (books) by parcel.
S: Books: apples, oranges, curtains, maps, ornaments, watches, seeds, etc.
4: Here is a list of all the things in our (room).
S: Room: cook-house, recreation room, M.I. room, etc.
5: Make a list of the names of all the (officers) in this regiment.
S: Officers: subedar-majors, subedars, jemadars, havildars, etc.
6: My (shirt) (is) the right size for me. (It is) not tight or loose.
S: Shirt: coat, hat, trousers, shorts, shoes.
7: The (screw) has come loose; I am making it tighter.
S: Screw: nut, top, knot.
8: My (belt) is very tight; I am making it looser.
S: Belt: sling, etc.

M: **Not Tight Or Loose**

TAILOR: Is the shirt tight ?

SAMI [*who has put on the shirt*]: No, it isn't.

TAILOR: It isn't loose, is it ?

SAMI: No, it isn't. It is the right size.

TAILOR: Will you have it a little looser round the chest ?

SAMI: No, thank you. [*Goes off with the shirt*].

Seatwork (Units 7-8)

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces:*
disease, common, cause, medical, parcel, cord, list, loose, tight.

1. If he has a.............................of the eye they will not take him into the Army.
2. This is a.............................of the names of those who got a V.C. in the last war.
3. Taking care of those who are ill is the work of a ....man.
4. He became angry without any.............................
5. Put all your blankets in the.............................
6. I am not able to put on these shoes; they are very ....
7. Now make a knot in the.............................
8. Hats are not very.............................in India.
9. If the belt is.............................it will not keep your trousers up.

Unit 9 : Prisoner-of-War Camp

chain, free, fixed, amount



9

A. Ganpat, Dondu and Vithal are in a prisoner-of-war camp in Siam. They were taken prisoner when the Japanese made their attack on Imphal and Kohima. They have been prisoners for about a year now. They have had a very hard time in this prisoner-of-war camp, as you may see for yourself. The Japanese have put chains made of iron on Ganpat hands. While he has these chains on his hands Ganpat will not be able to do any work with his hands ; his hands are not free. Dondu has no chains on his hands, but he has chains on his legs. While he has chains on his legs he will not be able to go about very quickly ; his legs are not quite free. Vithal has chains on his hands and on his legs. He is not free to do any work with his hands and he is not free to go about quickly.

B. The hands of civil prisoners are sometimes chained when they are being taken to jail (civil prison). Chaining up dogs when they are in the house is very common. One end of the chain is put round the dog's neck and the other end is fixed to the leg of a table or a long nail. But chaining soldiers in a prisoner-of-war camp is not common. And it was very wrong of the Japanese to do this. The Germans, like the Japanese, put some of their prisoners in chains. When the Allied armies made their first landing in France they came across a number of prisoner-of-war camps in which Canadian soldiers had been put in chains. The Germans said they did this because some of the German prisoners had been chained up by the Canadians.

C. A soldier in a prisoner-of-war camp is not as free as a soldier in his barracks. There are a number of things which a soldier in a barracks is free to do but which a soldier in a prisoner-of-war camp is not free to do. A soldier in a barracks is free to go out after his four o'clock tea. He is free to go to a çafe ; he is free to go and see his friends. But a soldier in a prisoner-of-war camp is not free to go out of the camp without an armed guard. Sometimes, however, a prisoner-of-war is let out 'on parole.' The time for which he is free may be two months or four months or six months. But the time is fixed and at the end of the parole he has to come back.

D. A prisoner-of-war does not have to give any money for the food and the clothing which he gets. The food and the clothing are given free. In the German prisoner-of-war camps the prisoners were given black bread, soup and 'porridge.' The food was given free but the amount of food was fixed. It was so much bread and no more, so much soup and no more, so much porridge and no more. The amount of bread, the amount of soup and the amount of porridge were all fixed. The amount of food which was given to the prisoners was not enough. And if food parcels had not been sent to them a great number might have come to their death. The Russian prisoners in Germany got no food parcels at all and the amount of food which was given to them by the Germans was so small that quite a number of them came to their death in the camp itself. We men have a need for a certain amount of food. And if we do not get enough food for a long time we may be in danger of death.

E. The only bright thing about a prisoner-of-war camp is that there is not much work to do and the prisoners are free for a great part of the day. Most of the prisoners in these camps made very good use of their time. Some got a training in wood-work or leather-work. Others got a knowledge of languages like German or French. Italian prisoners-of-war in India got themselves trained in the use of Basic English.

F. Take another look at Ganpat, Dondu and Vithal, who are prisoners in a camp in Siam. They do not get enough food. The Japanese are cruel ; they make them do all sorts of hard work and when they are tired or ill the Japanese give them a whipping. Ganpat, Dondu and Vithal have a sad look on their faces. But they are waiting—waiting for the day when the Allies will come and make them free.

A1 : Where are Ganpat, Dondu and Vithal ?
2 : When were they taken prisoner ?
3 : How long have they been prisoners ?
4 : What sort of time have they had ?
5 : What have the Japanese put on Ganpat hands ?
6 : Why isn't he able to do any work with his hands ?
7 : What have been put on Dondu's legs ?
8 : Why isn't he able to go about very quickly ?
9 : What have been put on Vithal's hands and on his legs ?
10 : What isn't he free to do ?

B1 : When are the hands of civil prisoners sometimes chained ?
2 : When are dogs commonly chained up ?
3 : How is a dog chained up ?

4 : Which other country put some of their prisoners in chains ?

5 : What did the Allied armies come across when they made their first landing in France ?

6 : Why did the Germans say they put Canadian soldiers in chains ?

C1 : Why is a soldier in a prisoner-of-war camp not as free as a soldier in his barracks ?

2 : What is a soldier in a barracks free to do ?

3 : What is a soldier in a prisoner-of-war camp not free to do ?

4 : How is a prisoner-of-war sometimes let free ?

5 : Is the time for which he is free fixed ?

6 : What does he have to do at the end of the parole ?

D1 : What is given free to a prisoner-of-war ?

2 : What did the prisoners-of-war in Germany get for food ?

3 : Was the amount of food fixed ?

4 : Was the amount of food which was given to the prisoners enough for their needs ?

5 : What would have been the danger if food parcels hadn't been sent ?

6 : Which prisoners in Germany got no food parcels ?

7 : Why did a number of them come to their death in the camp ?

8 : What do men have a need of ?

9 : What is the danger if we do not get enough food ?

E1 : What is the only bright thing about a prisoner-of-war camp ?

2 : What use did most of the prisoners make of their free time ?

3 : Who got themselves trained in the use of Basic English ?

F1 : Is the amount of food which Ganpat, Dondu and Vithal get in their camp enough for their needs ?

2 : How are the Japanese cruel to them ?

3 : What sort of look have the three men on their faces ?

4 : What day are they waiting for ?

P1 : This chain is made of (gold).

S : Gold : silver, iron, steel.

2 : The (dog) has been chained up.

S : Dog : tiger, lion, elephant, horse.

3 : Is this (table) fixed to the floor ?

S : Table : seat, box, shelf, cupboard.

4 : The (cover of this box) is fixed to the (box) with (nails).

S : Cover of box, box : door, door-frame ; window, window-frame ; picture, picture-frame.

5 : I am getting this (shelf) fixed to the wall.

S : Shelf : picture-frame, board, light.

6 : The price of (pens) in this store is fixed. We do not put it down for anybody.

S : Pens : pencils, paper, knives, umbrellas, socks, etc.

7 : The (dog) was chained up. I took the chain off the dog and let it go free.

S : Dog : cow, bullock, buffalo, horse, goat.

8 : There will be no work on (Monday) ; we will be free for the day.

S : Monday : Tuesday, Wednesday, etc.

9 : He is ill. That is why we give him only a small amount of (milk).

S : Milk : food, rice, coffee, tea.

10 : There is a great amount of (coal) under the earth.

S : Coal : iron, copper, aluminium, manganese, silver.

M1 : **A Free School**

KHAN : A free school will be opened in this village in a short time.

KARIM : A free school ?

KHAN : Yes, a free school ; One won't have to give any money to send one's boys and girls to the school.

KARIM : That's very good. A great number of poor men will be able to send their boys to school then.

2 : **A Free Hospital**

KHAN : A number of free hospitals will be opened for ex-soldiers who are wounded.

KARIM : Free hospitals ?

KHAN : Yes, free hospitals—hospitals, where you don't have to make any payment for medical attention.

3 : **The Day Has Not Been Fixed**

RAM SINGH : When are we going to have our regimental sports ?

LAL SINGH : Maybe Monday, maybe Tuesday. The day has not been fixed.

4 : **Fixed For Monday**

RAM SINGH : The (football match) has been fixed for (Monday).

LAL SINGH : When was it fixed ?

RAM SINGH : It was fixed at our meeting last night.

S : Football match : hockey match, running competition, walking competition, etc.

5 : **Great Amount of Reading**

SAMI : What does Mudaliar do with his time these days ? He never goes out.

REDDI : He does a great amount of reading.

SAMI : Reading ? What for ?

REDDI : He says he is going to become a clerk after demobilization.

Unit 10 : The New Badge

roll, band, leather



10

A. The sepoys in this unit have been ordered to get ready to go to another station. What is the sepoy on the right doing to his bed? Is he folding it? No, he is not folding it; he is rolling it. He is going to make a roll of his bed. And when the bed has been rolled up he is going to put a strong cord round his bed-roll and make a tight knot in the cord. The bed-roll will not come out and he will be able to take it on his back from one place to another without trouble.

B. In Indian houses the beds are rolled up every morning and are put against the wall one on top of another. At night the beds are made again by unrolling the bed-rolls on the floor. In English houses the beds are never rolled up in the morning but are kept as they are and a bed-cover is put on them. They are able to do this in England because there they do not put their beds on the floor, as we do in this country, but on 'bedsteads' or 'cots' made of wood or iron.

C. The sepoy is now ready. He has his bed-roll on his back. He has put his left hand on his bed-roll to keep it in position. In his right hand there is a little parcel of books and papers with a rubber band round them. The rubber band is for keeping the books and papers together.

D. Take a look at the sepoy. He has a belt on. A belt is a sort of band which we put round the middle of our bodies to keep our trousers from slipping down. Belts may be made of cloth or of leather. Though leather belts are stronger than belts made of cloth they are not very common in the Army today. Men in the Army mostly have belts made of cloth.

E. At the back of the sepoy is a V.C.O. The V.C.O. has put on his new uniform. It is the same sort of uniform as the one which he had on before the war, but the badges of rank are different. V.C.O.'s now have the same sort of badges as King's commissioned officers, but with two coloured bands across them—a red band and a yellow band.

A1 : What have the sepoys in this unit been ordered to do?
2 : What is the sepoy on the right doing to his bed?
3 : What is he going to make of his bed?
4 : What will he put round his bed-roll?
5 : What will he make in the cord?
6 : What is he able to do with his bed-roll without much trouble?

B1 : What is done to beds in some Indian houses every morning?
2 : How are the beds made again at night?
3 : Are beds in English houses rolled up?
4 : Why are they able to keep beds as they are all day in England?

C1 : Where is the sepoy's bed-roll now?
2 : Why has he put his left hand on his bed-roll?
3 : What is in his right hand?
4 : What is round the parcel?
5 : Why is there a rubber band round the books and papers?

D1 : What is the use of the belt the sepoy has on?
2 : Where has he got it on?
3 : What may belts be made of?
4 : What belts are stronger than those made of cloth?
5 : Which belts are most common in the Army today?

E1 : Where is the V.C.O.?
2 : What has he put on?
3 : Which one is it the same as?
4 : What sort of badges will V.C.O.'s have after the war?

P1 : I made a roll of my (blanket).
S : Blanket : sheet, trousers, shirts, paper.

2 : The (bed) has been rolled up.
S : Bed : floor-covering.

3 : I put a rubber band round the (papers) to keep them together.
S : Papers : books, bits of cloth, pencils, sticks.

4 : This band is made of (leather).
S : Leather : rubber, cloth.

5 : He has a (black) band round his arm.
S : Black : yellow, red, green, blue, brown.

6 : Leather is used for making (shoes).
S : Shoes : boots, bags, belts.

M1 : A Rolling-Pin

GOPAL : What are you doing, mother?
SITA : I'm making chapatis.

GOPAL : What are you doing to the paste ?

SITA : I'm giving it a roll with a rolling-pin.

GOPAL : What's that for ?

SITA : That is to make the paste smooth and flat. After making it flat, smooth and round with a rolling-pin I will get it cut up into chapatis and put them over the fire.

2 : A Garden Roller

GOPAL [*out in the garden*] : What are you doing to the grass, father ?

RAM : I'm making it flat and smooth ; I'm rolling it.

GOPAL : What's that you are pushing ?

RAM : It's my new garden-roller.

Seatwork

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :* chain, fixed, free, amount, roll, band, leather.

1. A pair of shoes is given..............................to every recruit ; he does not have to give any money for them.
2. The baby's leg was..............................to the table with a cord.
3. A belt is a sort of..............................round the middle of our bodies.
4. He made a..............................of his bed and put it on the lorry.
5. She had a..............................made of gold round her neck.
6. A..............................bag is stronger than a bag made of cloth.
7. He has a great..............................of money in the bank.
8. A recruit's salary is..............................No recruit may get more or less than his..............................salary.
9. If you are..............................on Sunday why not come for a swim with me ?
10. His hands are chained ; they are not..............................
11. At the time..............................for the medical test he went to the M.I. room.

B. *Put these statements differently, without changing the sense, by using the '-ed' form of the word in sloping print :*

1. The noise gave us *trouble.*
   E.g. We were troubled by the noise.
2. He had given his hair a *comb.*
   ....
3. We had a great *need* for airplanes.
   ....
4. The bus came to a *stop* in front of our house.
   ....
5. He has a heart *disease.*
   ....
6. The snake-bite may be the *cause* of his death.
   ....
7. The prisoners will be put in *chains.*
   ....
8. He made a roll of his blanket.

C. *Put these statements in the passive voice :*

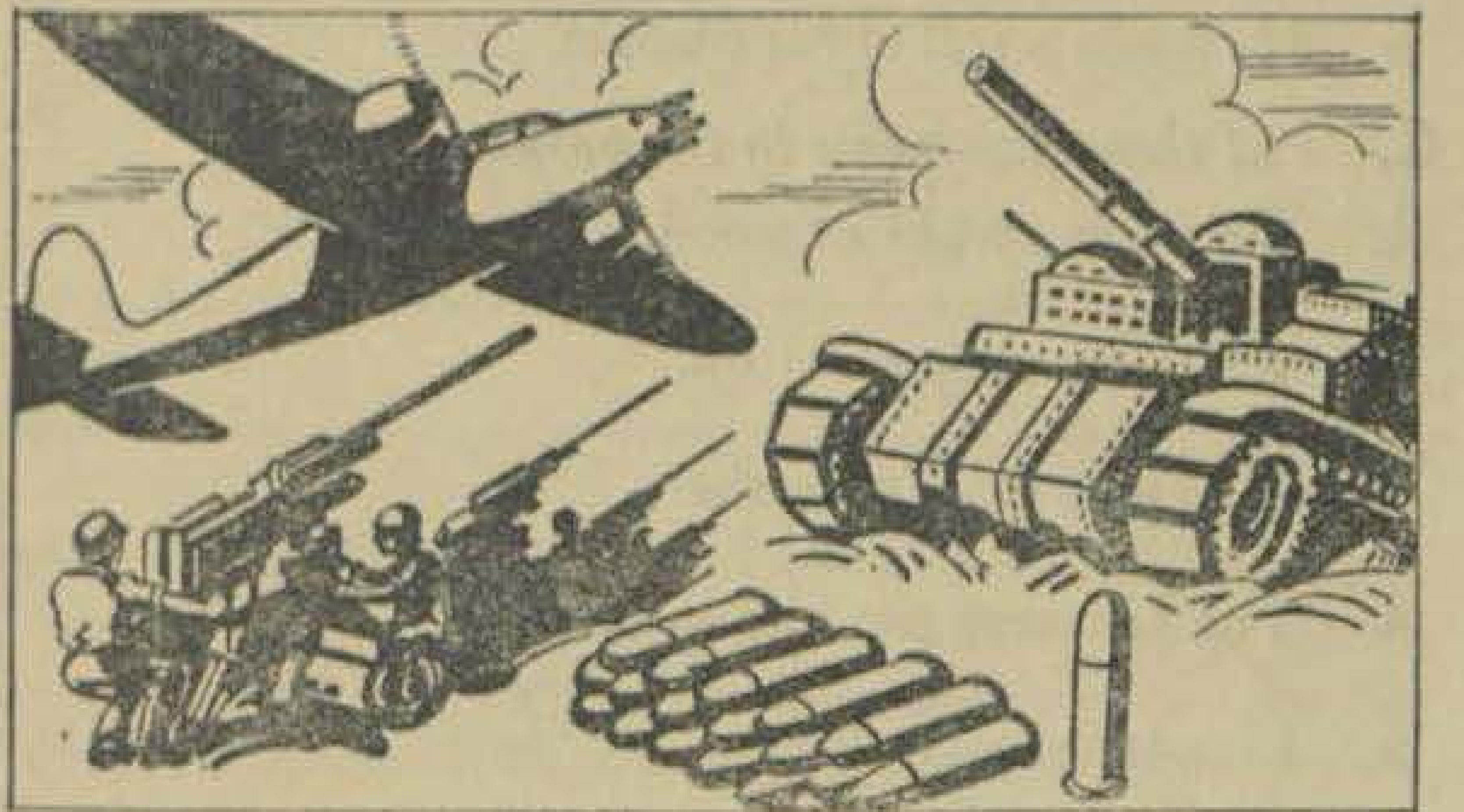
1. We make combs of wood.
   ....
2. We make chains of iron.
   ....
3. We make belts of leather.
   ....
4. The Japanese put him in chains.
   ....
5. I made the parcel.
   ....
6. The Allies made the prisoners free.
   ....
7. It was he who made the list.
   ....
8. His father gave him a whistle.
   ....
9. A porter put my things into the carriage.
   ....

D. *Put these statements differently, without changing the sense, by using the words in brackets :*

1. What you say is not true. (false)
   ....
2. I am certain that you are wrong. (doubt)
   ....
3. He was not sleeping at the time. (awake)
   ....
4. We went to the village in a bus. (journey)
   ....
5. Tanks are taken from one place to another by railway. (transport)
   ....
6. There are only a small number of tigers in our woods. (common)
   ....
7. How did the smash take place ? (cause)
   ....
8. I have put down the names of all the men who are coming with us. (list)
   ....
9. They have put chains on his legs. (free)
   ....
10. There is only a little water in the bucket. (amount)
    ....
11. There is something wrong with his stomach. (disease)
    ....
12. That unit is made up of doctors. (medical)
    ....
13. We are going to have the test on Monday. (fixed)
    ....

Unit 11: War Today

necessary, possible, sign



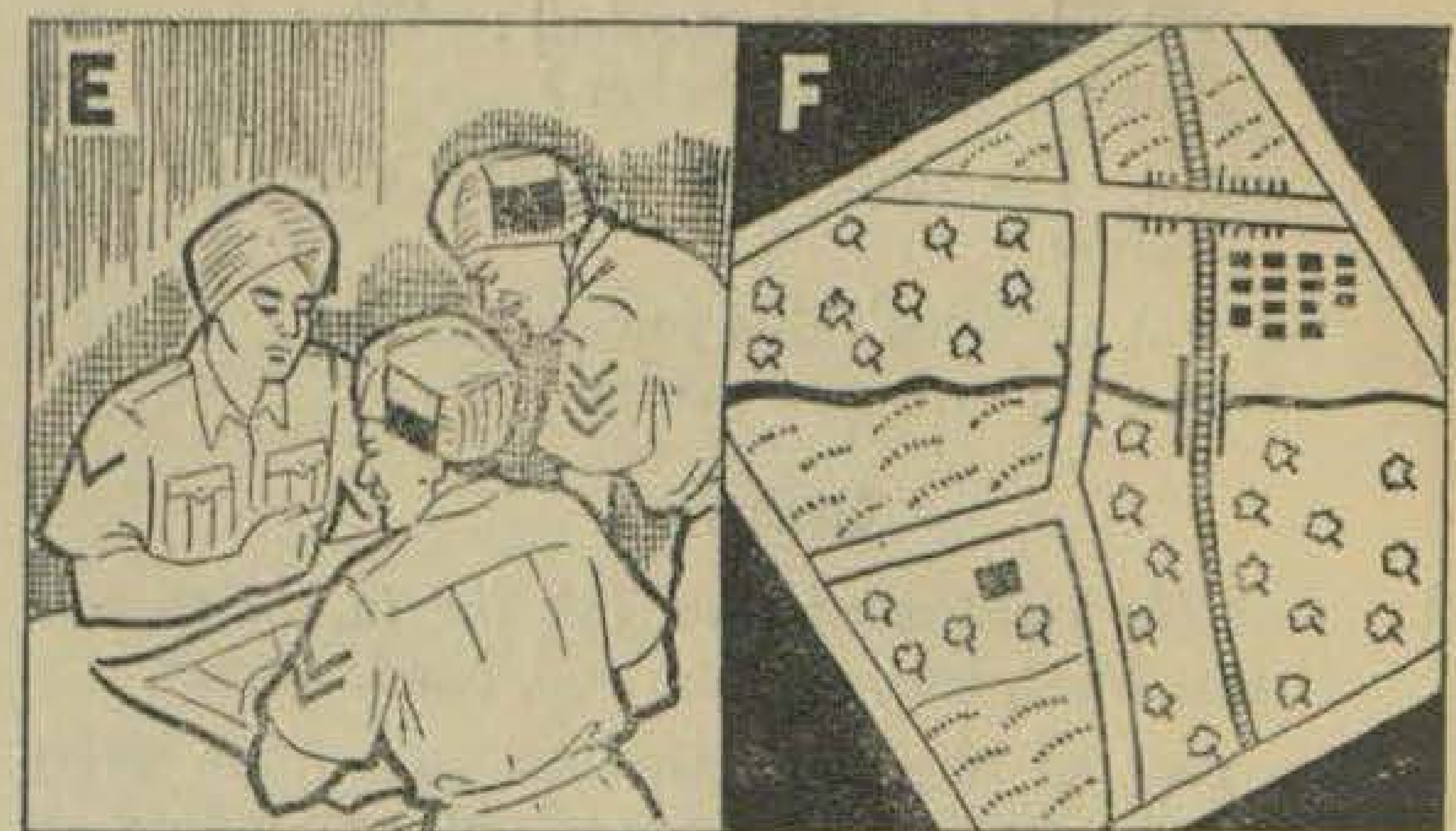
11

A. Certain things are necessary for victory in war today. These things are guns, shells, tanks and airplanes. Without guns, shells, tanks and airplanes no country would be able to overcome its enemies. Guns and shells, tanks and airplanes are necessary for victory. Poland went down before Germany in less than ten days. Why? It was not because the Polish Army was very small or because the Germans were better fighters than the Poles. It was possible for the Germans to overcome the Poles so quickly because they had a much greater number of tanks and airplanes. If the Poles had had the same number of tanks and airplanes as the Germans it would not have been possible for the Germans to 'defeat' the Poles so quickly.

B. The same is true of France. It was not possible for the French to go on fighting for more than two weeks because at that time they had not enough tanks and planes. The victory of the Allied countries was made possible because in the end the number of tanks and airplanes massed by the Allies was much greater than the number of tanks and airplanes massed by the Germans. In the war of today victory goes to that country which has more and better arms.

C. It is not possible for every country to make guns, shells, tanks and airplanes. Certain metals are necessary for making arms and ammunition. Iron and steel are necessary for making every sort of weapon. Without great amounts of iron and steel it is not possible to make tanks or battle-ships, airplanes or submarines. Copper is necessary for making shells; without copper it is not possible to make shells. Lead is necessary for making bullets; without lead it is not possible to make bullets. Great amounts of petrol are necessary for tanks and battle-ships, airplanes and submarines; without petrol it is not possible to keep these going. Rubber is necessary for making tyres for all sorts of motor-vehicles. Without rubber it is not possible to make tyres for motor-vehicles. To be strong in war a country has to have a great amount of the necessary metals and other things like oil and rubber.

D. It is necessary to have arms. But it is equally necessary to have the soldiers trained in the use of these arms. To be a good airman a knowledge of the different parts of an airplane is necessary. To be a good gunner a knowledge of the different parts of a gun is necessary. To be a good 'marine' a knowledge of the different parts of a battle-ship is necessary. And for all men in the Army—for doctors and engineers as well as for the infantry—a knowledge of map-reading is very necessary.



11

E. Three soldiers are doing map-reading at a table. One is a lance-naik, another is a naik and the third is a havildar. Which of them is the lance-naik, which is the naik and which is the havildar? They all have bands, or 'stripes,' across their arms. These stripes are sorts of signs. By looking at these stripes it is possible to say if the man is a lance-naik, a naik or a havildar. One stripe is a sign that the man who has it on his arm is a lance-naik. Two stripes are a sign that the man who has them on his arm is a naik. Three stripes are a sign that the man who has them on his arm is a havildar. Stripes, stars and crowns are all signs of a man's rank. It is clear to you now which is the lance-naik, which is the naik and which is the havildar. The man at the left side of the table is the lance-naik. The man at the right side of the table is the naik. The man at the back of the table is the havildar. The three men are getting ready for a test in map-reading.

F. This is one of the maps which the men are reading. As you see, the map is full of signs of different sorts. A curved line is the sign for a river. It is a sign that in the place marked on the map there is a river. Two lines is the sign for a road. It is a sign that in the place marked on the map there is a road. A picture of a tree is the sign for a tree. It is a sign that in the place marked on the map there is a tree. A square is the sign for a brick building. It is a sign that in the place marked on the map there is a brick building. Other things which are marked on the map by signs are a bridge (two short lines), a village (a number of squares grouped together), and a railway (one long line with a number of short lines across it). To be good at map-reading it is necessary to have a knowledge of all these signs.

A1 : What things are necessary for victory ?
2 : What wouldn't a country be able to do without these things ?
3 : What things are necessary for victory ?
4 : How long did it take Germany to overcome Poland ?
5 : Why was it possible for the Germans to overcome Poland so quickly ?
6 : Would it have been possible for the Germans to overcome the Poles so quickly if the Poles had had the same number of tanks and airplanes ?

B1 : What other country was in the same position as Poland ?
2 : Why was it not possible for the French to go on fighting for more than two months ?
3 : What made the victory of the Allies possible in the end ?
4 : To what country does victory come in wars of today ?

C1 : Is it possible for every country to make guns, shells, tanks, planes ?
2 : Why isn't it possible ?
3 : What two metals are necessary for making every sort of weapon ?
4 : Why are great amounts of iron and steel so necessary ?
5 : What metal is necessary for making shells ?
6 : Why is copper so necessary ?
7 : What metal is necessary for making bullets ?
8 : Why is lead so necessary ?
9 : What is necessary to keep tanks and battle-ships, airplanes and submarines going ?
10 : What is necessary for making tyres for all sorts of motor vehicles ?
11 : Is it possible to make tyres without rubber ?
12 : What has a country to have to be strong in war ?

D1 : It is necessary to have arms. What is equally necessary ?
2 : What knowledge is necessary to be a good airman (gunner, marine) ?
3 : What knowledge is very necessary for all men in the Army ?

E1 : What are the three soldiers in this picture doing ?
2 : What are their ranks ?
3 : What is the name we give to the bands across their arms ?
4 : What sort of things would we say these stripes are ?
5 : How is it possible to say if a soldier is a lance-naik, a naik or a havildar ?
6 : What is one stripe on a soldier's arm a sign of ?
7 : What are two stripes a sign of ?
8 : What are three stripes a sign of ?
9 : What are stripes, stars and crowns a sign of ?
10 : What is now clear to you ?
11 : Where in the picture is the lance-naik ?
12 : Where is the naik ?
13 : Where is the havildar ?
14 : What are the three men doing ?

F1 : What is this a picture of ?
2 : What do you see on the map ?
3 : What is the sign for a river ?
4 : What is a curved line on a map a sign of ?
5 : What is the sign for a road ?
6 : What are two lines on a map a sign of ?
7 : What is the sign for a tree ?
8 : What is a picture of a tree on a map a sign of ?
9 : What is the sign for a brick building ?
10 : What is a square on a map a sign of ?
11 : What other things are marked on the map by signs ?
12 : What is the sign for a bridge (village, railway) ?
13 : What would you do to become good at map-reading ?

P1 : We haven't enough (tables). (Ten) more tables will be necessary.
S : Tables : seats, books, plates, mosquito-nets, blankets, charpoys, shelves, buckets, etc.

2 : What is necessary to make (cloth) ?
S : Cloth : soap, pots, screws, nails, bulbs, cushions, ornaments.

3 : If you are going on a long journey it may be necessary to take (drinking water) with you.
S : Drinking water : food, fruit, soap, etc.

4 : Is it possible to make (coffee) without (water) ?
S : Coffee, water : coat, needle and thread ; book, paper ; ice-cream, milk ; glass, sand ; soap, oil ; rifle, steel ; tennis ball, rubber.

5 : It is not possible to get a (hat) for less than (four) rupees these days.
S : Hat, four : watch, ten ; leather bag, fifteen ; umbrella, five ; pen, ten.

6 : (Air) support made it possible for us to take the town.
S : Air : tank, artillery, naval.

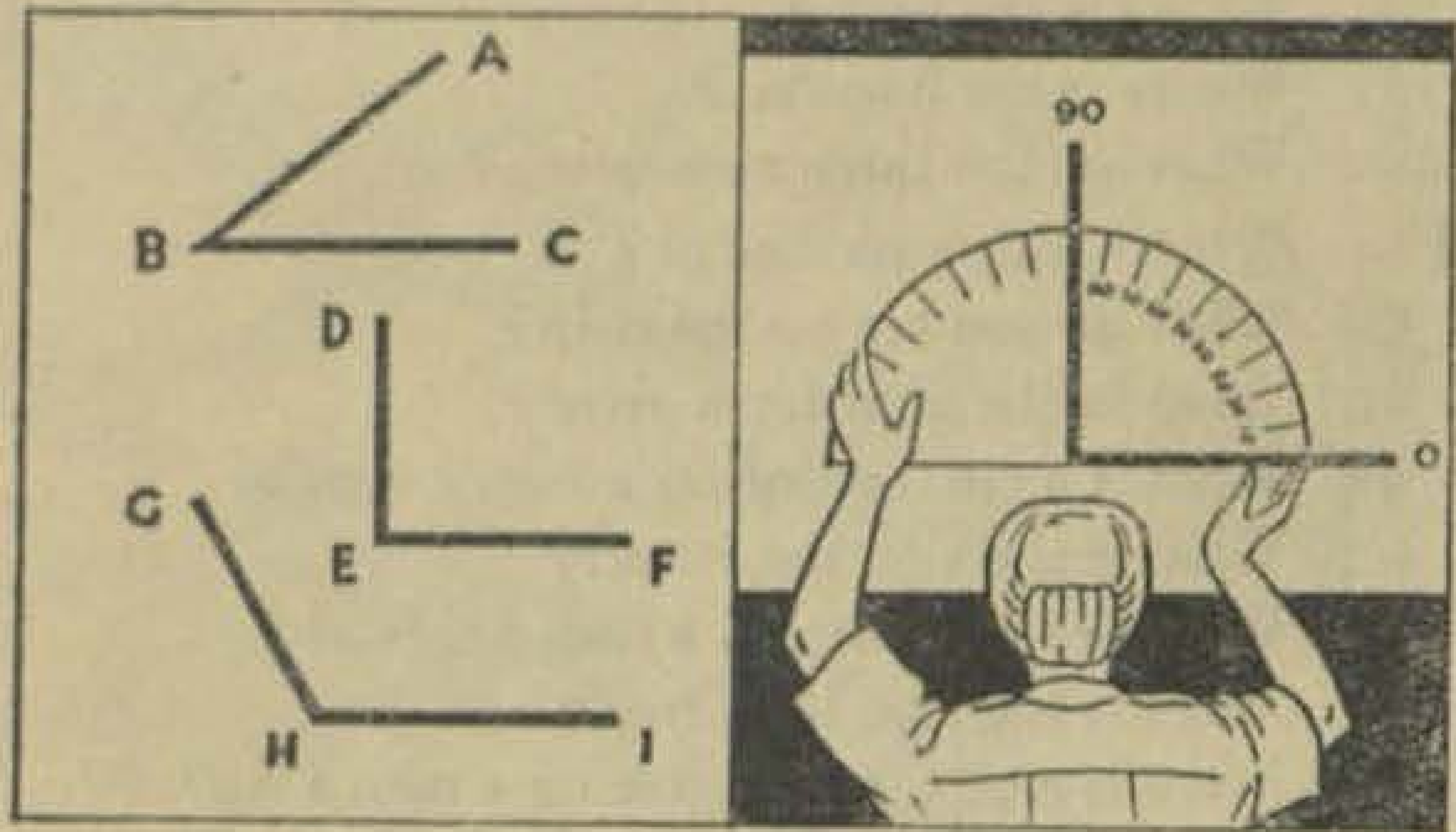
7 : We are badly in need of (rifles). Please send us some rifles as early as possible.
S : Rifles : anti-tank guns, anti-aircraft guns, charpoys, raincoats, doctors, medicines.

8 : My friend is taking all possible care of my (house).
S : House : farm, money, land, boys, girls, family.

9 : What is a (red light) a sign of ?
S : Red light : green light, white flag, siren.

Unit 12: Instruments

angle, measure, instrument, scale, lift

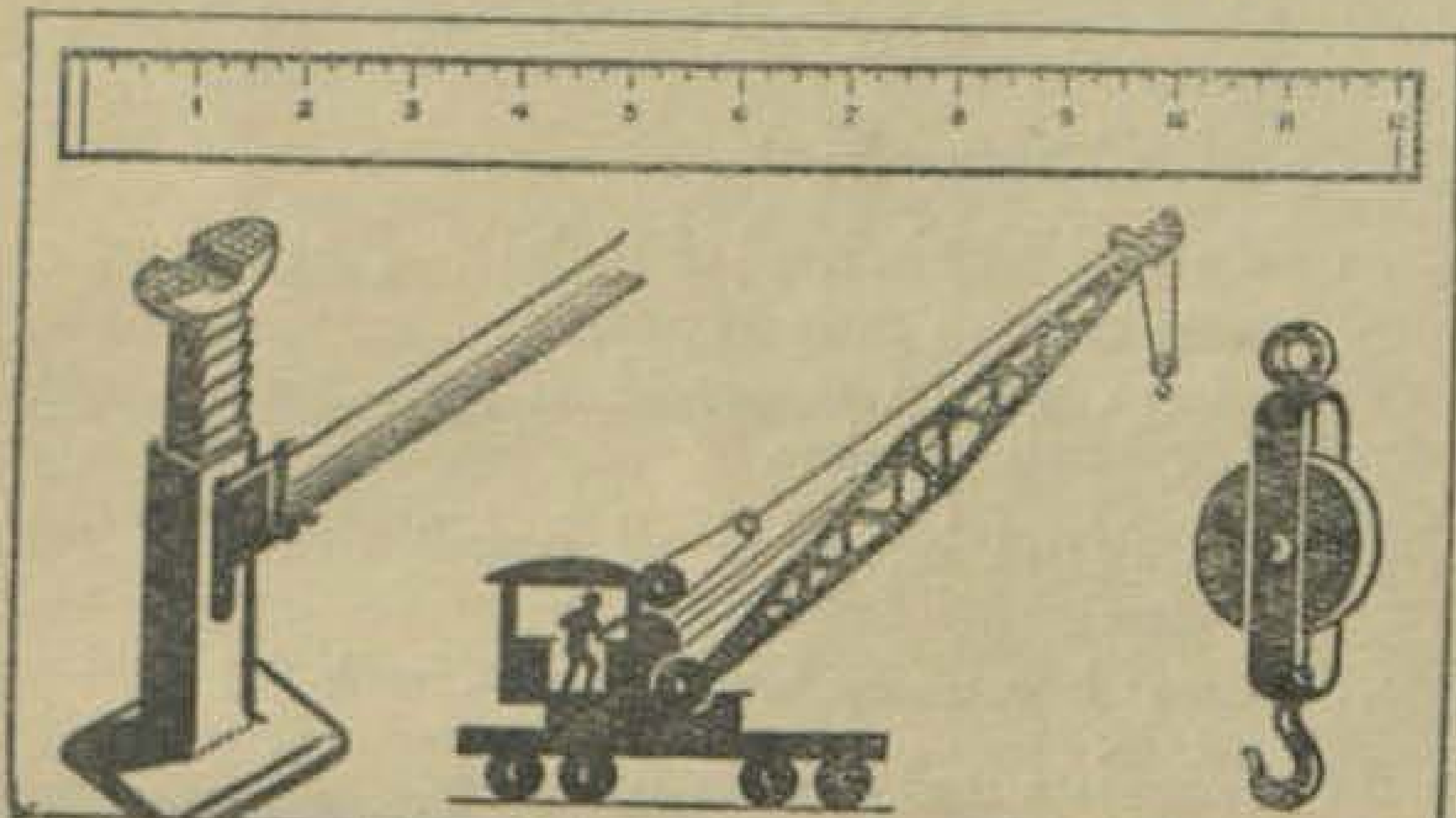


12

A. AB and BC are two lines meeting at a point. The space between the lines AB and BC is an angle. When two lines come together at a point an angle is formed. In this picture there are three angles, angle ABC, angle DEF and angle GHI. The three angles are not of the same size. Angle ABC is narrower than angle DEF, and angle DEF is narrower than angle GHI. Angle ABC is the narrowest of the three, and angle GHI is the widest.

B. An angle is formed not only when two straight lines come together but when two walls come together. The space between the two walls would then be an angle. If your room has four walls it will have four angles. In most Indian houses the angles of a room are used for keeping sticks or umbrellas in.

C. The sepoy in this picture is seeing how wide an angle is. He is measuring the angle. What is he measuring the angle with? He is measuring the angle with a 'protractor.' A protractor is an instrument for measuring angles. The angle which he is measuring is 90 degrees. The sign for degree is a little circle put at the right hand side of the top of the number—90°. An angle which is smaller than a right angle is a sharp or 'acute' angle. An angle which is wider than a right angle is a wide or 'obtuse' angle. In picture A angle ABC is an acute angle, angle DEF is a right angle and angle GHI is an obtuse angle.

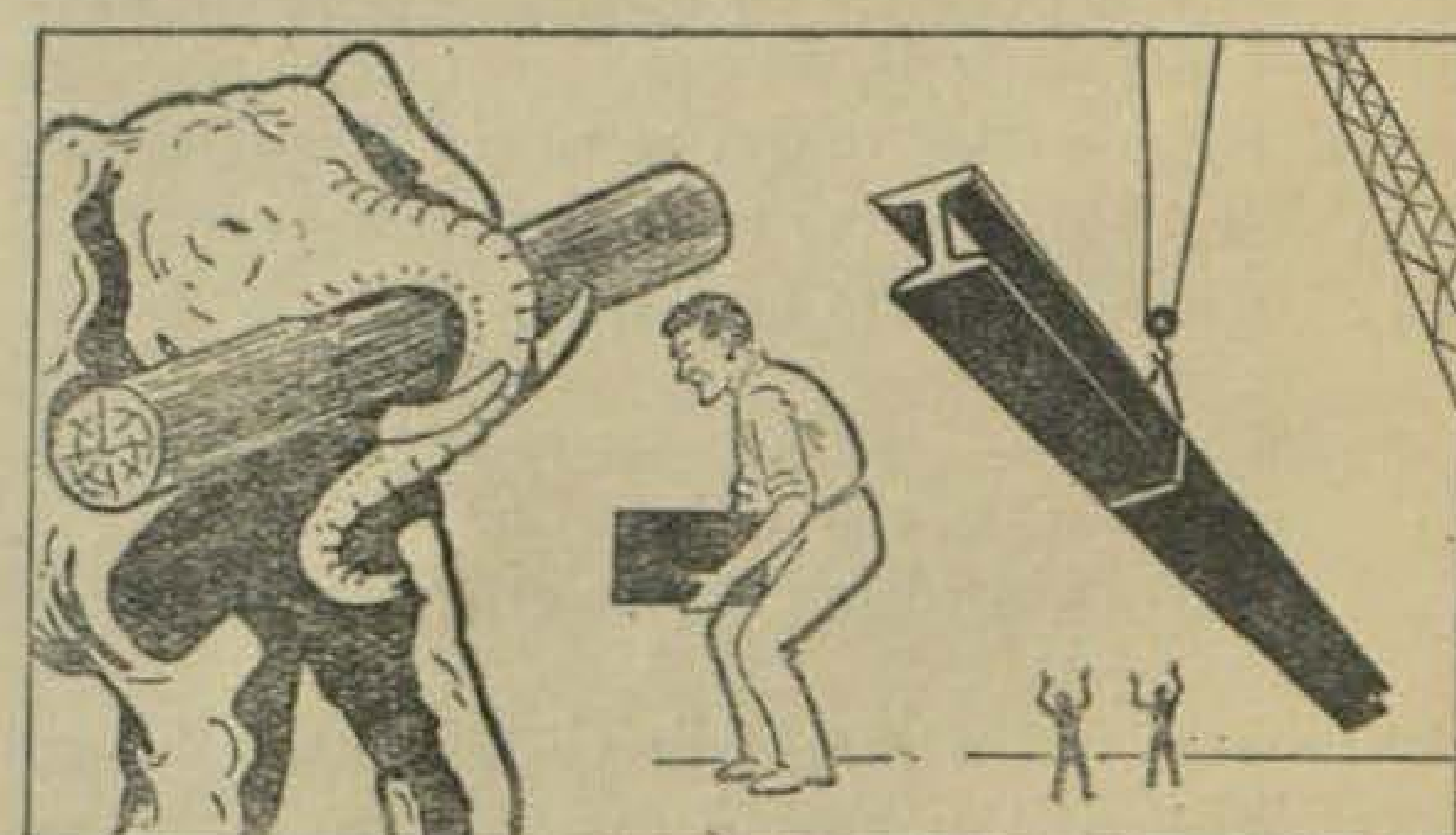


12

D. Anything with which we do work is an instrument. A protractor is an instrument for measuring angles. A knife is an instrument for cutting. A hammer is an instrument for driving nails in. A plane is an instrument for making wood smooth. A garden-roller is an instrument for making grass smooth. A bull-dozer is an instrument for making a way or levelling a road. Tanks, bombers, battle-ships and submarines are all instruments of war, instruments of destruction.

E. We have a number of instruments for measuring things. The instrument for measuring time is a watch. The instrument for measuring heat is a thermometer. The instrument for measuring rain is a 'rain gauge'. And the instrument for measuring short distances is a scale. A scale is a ruler with divisions marked on it. Scales have to be used when we do map-reading. Some scales are a foot long; other scales may be as long as a yard. Take a look at the scale in the picture. The longer divisions are inches and the shorter divisions are one-quarter of an inch. Some rulers have no divisions marked on them. Such rulers are of no use in measuring distances. They are used only for making straight lines.

F. Whenever a doctor goes to see a man who is ill he takes a leather bag with him. The leather bag is full of medical instruments. A doctor has different sorts of instruments for testing different parts of the body. Have you ever seen the instrument with which a man's heart is tested? Two ends of the instrument are placed in the doctor's ears and the third end, which is a bit of rounded metal, is placed on the man's heart. Hearing the sound which the heart makes while it is pumping the blood through the body the doctor is able to say how strong the man's heart is. This instrument is named a 'stethoscope'.



12

G. Like a doctor a 'motor-mechanic' takes a number of instruments with him wherever he goes. But he does not take his instruments in a leather-bag; he takes them in a box made of wood. The instruments which he takes with him as a rule are a knife, a 'spanner', a hammer, a screw-driver, a cranking-handle, a pump, nails and screws and a 'jack'. A spanner is an instrument for making a nut tight or getting it loose. A screw-driver is an instrument for making a screw tight

when it has come loose, or getting a screw loose when it is very tight. A cranking-handle is an instrument for starting the engine of a car. A pump is an instrument for pumping air into a tyre, and a jack is an instrument for getting part of a car off the earth when a wheel has to be taken off. The word for 'taking up or getting up off the earth' is 'lift'. A jack is an instrument for lifting a car when a wheel has to be taken off. The jack is placed under the rod which goes across the car (the axle). It is then worked by turning a handle. As the handle is turned the wheel is lifted off the earth. A jack is an instrument for lifting small things. When things of great size have to be lifted a 'crane' or 'pulley' is used.

H. A 'pulley' is only a little wheel over which a strong cord is placed. Pulleys are widely used in building work. Maybe you have seen great iron rods being lifted by pulleys where some building work is going on. And you have certainly seen jeeps, tanks and motor lorries being put on or lifted off ships by cranes.

A1 : What are AB and BC?
2 : Where are they meeting?
3 : What is the space between the lines AB and BC?
4 : When is an angle formed?
5 : What is the number of angles in the picture?
6 : How are they named?
7 : Are they the same size?
8 : Which angle is narrower than angle DEF?
9 : Which angle is narrower than angle GHI?
10 : Which is the narrowest angle?
11 : Which is the widest angle?

B1 : An angle is formed when two straight lines come together. In what other way is an angle formed?
2 : What would the space between the two walls be?
3 : What is the number of angles in a room of four walls?
4 : What are the angles of a room used for in most Indian houses?

C1 : What is the sepoy in this picture doing?
2 : With what is he measuring the angle?
3 : What is a protractor?
4 : How wide is the angle he is measuring?
5 : What is the sign for a degree?
6 : What is a sharp or 'acute' angle?
7 : What is a wide or 'obtuse' angle?
8 : What sort of angle is ABC (DEF, GHI)?

D1 : What is an instrument?
2 : What sort of instrument is a protractor (knife, hammer, plane, garden-roller, bull-dozer)?
3 : What are tanks (bombers) instruments of?

E1 : Give the names of four instruments used for measuring things?
2 : What sort of instrument is a watch (thermometer, 'rain gauge', scale)?
3 : What is a scale?
4 : When do scales have to be used?
5 : How long are scales?
6 : How long are the longer divisions in the scale in the picture?
7 : How long are the shorter divisions?
8 : Are all rulers marked with divisions?
9 : Are such rulers of any use?

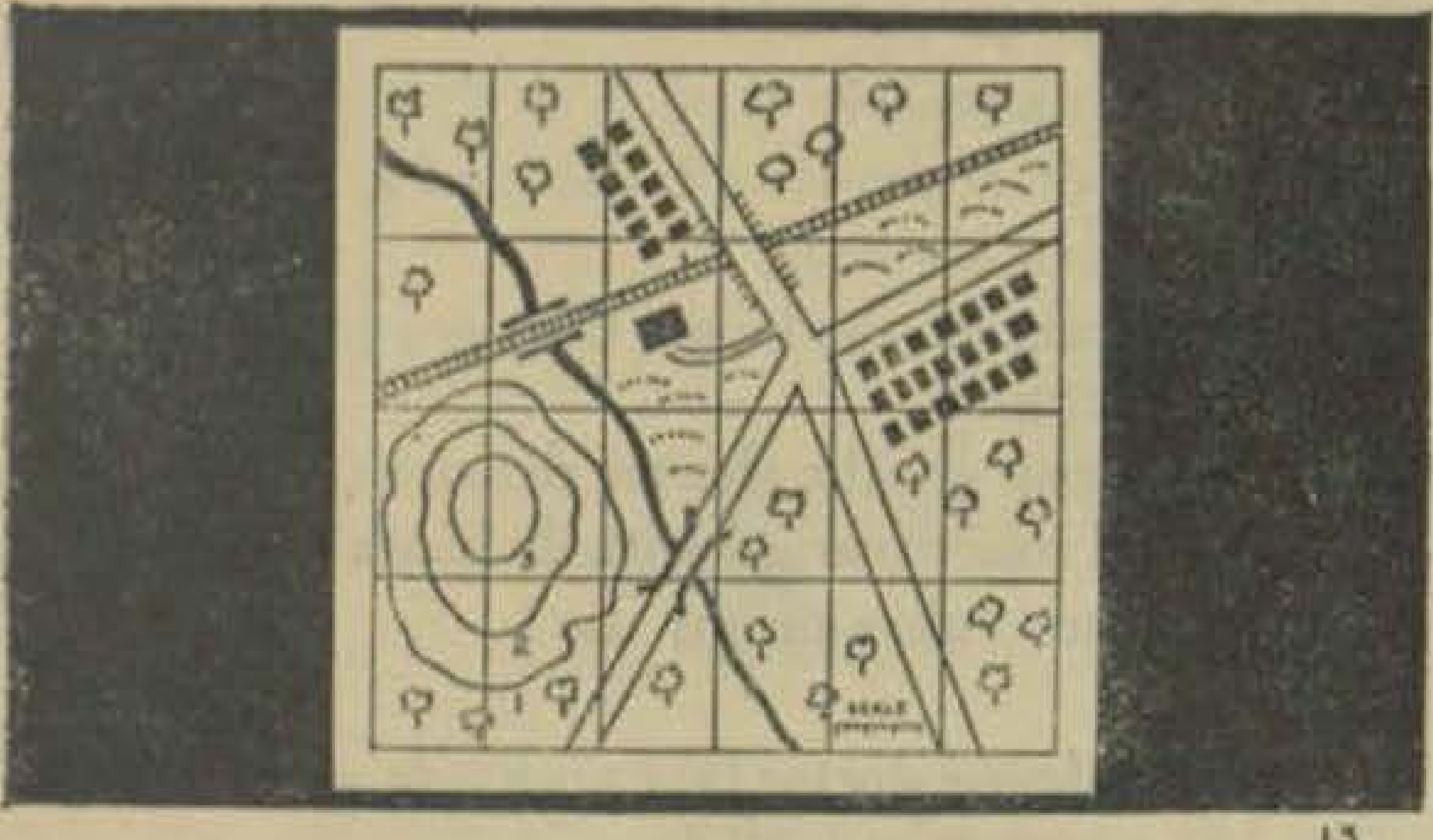
F1 : What does a doctor take with him when going to see a man who is ill?
2 : What is in the leather bag?
3 : Why does he have different sorts of instruments?
4 : What instrument is used for testing a man's heart?
5 : Where are the two ends of the instrument placed?
6 : Where is the third end placed?
7 : What is the third end like?
8 : What is the doctor able to say, hearing the sounds made by the heart?
9 : What is the heart doing while making the sounds?

G1 : Who, like the doctor, has to take his instruments with him?
2 : What does he take them in?
3 : Which are the instruments he takes with him?
4 : What sort of instrument is a spanner (screw-driver, cranking-handle, pump)?
5 : What has to be done to a car when the wheel has to be taken off?
6 : What is one word for taking up or getting up off the earth?
7 : What is a jack used for?
8 : Where is the jack placed for lifting a car?
9 : How is it worked?
10 : What is lifted off the earth as the handle is turned?
11 : Is a jack used when things of great size have to be lifted?
12 : What is used for lifting things of great size?

H1 : What is a pulley?
2 : In what sort of work are pulleys widely used?
3 : Where have you seen great iron rods being lifted by pulleys?
4 : What sort of things are lifted off ships by cranes?

Unit 13: Map-Reading

parallel, direction



A. This is the sort of map which is used for giving the position of buildings, rivers, roads and railways. The map is square in form. The sides, which are twenty inches long, are all equal. One inch on the map is equal to a mile. In other words the map is made to scale, the scale being one inch to a mile. If the distance between any two points on the map is three inches the true distance between these two points will be three miles.

B. Running down the map are a number of straight lines. These are the 'grid lines'. Any two of these grid lines are at the same distance from one another at all points. The lines are parallel. There are five grid lines in the picture. And all the five grid lines are parallel to one another. Running across the page are another three lines. Like the grid lines these are parallel to one another. The grid lines are parallel to one another. The 'cross lines' are parallel to one another. But the grid lines and cross lines are not parallel to one another; they are at right angles to one another.

C. There is a third group of lines on the map. These lines are not straight; they are curved. These are 'contour lines'. Some are almost circles; others have roughly the same outline as that of an egg or an orange. All points on any one of the contour lines are as high (from sea-level) as one another. All points on line 1 are 225 feet high from sea-level. All points on line 2 are 250 feet high from sea-level. All points on line 3 are 300 feet high from sea-level. So by looking at the map you will be able not only to give the position of a place but to say how high it is from sea-level as well.

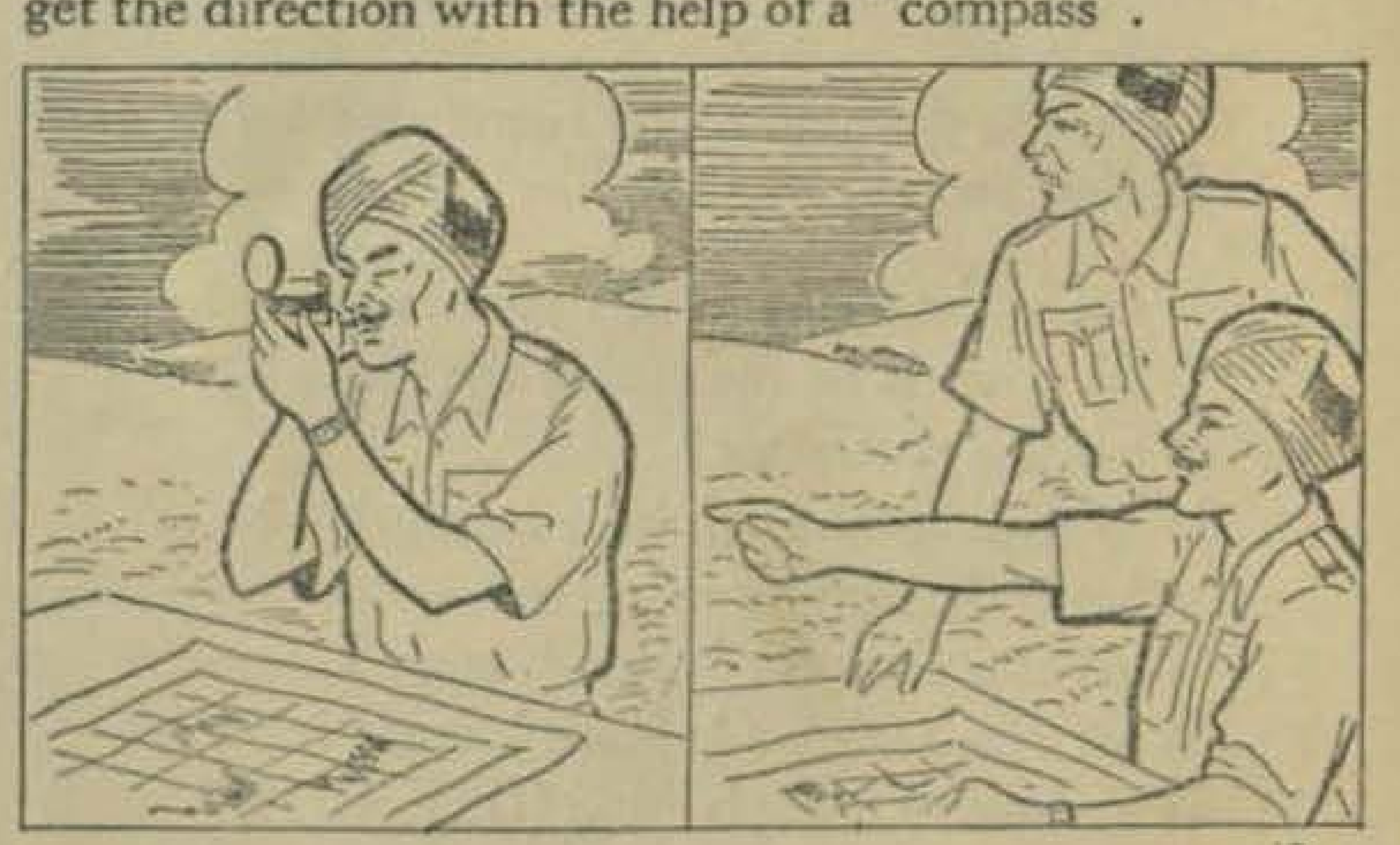
D. On the map you see marked a number of signs—the sign for a river, the sign for a railway, the sign for a tree, the sign for a village, the sign for a bridge, the sign for a building and so on.



E. This is a platoon commander. He has a map on his table. He has been ordered to go to a certain field and camp (put up his tents) there for the night. The position of the field on the map has been given. The platoon commander has been given a 'six figure map reference'—744 508. Sometimes only a 'four figure map reference' is given—74 50, let us say. A six figure map reference is better than a four figure map reference because working with a six figure map reference it is possible to be more certain about the position of a place.

The position of the field has been fixed on the map, and the platoon commander is measuring the distance between his present position and the position of the field. The distance on the map is three and a half inches, so the platoon commander is certain that the field is about three and a half miles away.

F. The distance is three and a half miles. But in which direction is the field? It may be to the north or to the east or to the south or to the west. In which direction is it? That is the second question which has to be answered. The platoon commander is now measuring the angle made by the line joining his present position and the position of the field and one of the grid lines. This angle is 20°. He has now got the direction of the field as marked on the map. But how is he to get the direction of the field itself? He will get the direction with the help of a 'compass'.



G. A compass is an instrument with the help of which we get the directions. It has a needle, one end of which keeps pointing north and the other south.

The compass will give the platoon commander the two directions, the magnetic north and the magnetic south. He has been given the angle between the grid north and the magnetic north. He has got the angle made by the grid north and the line joining his present position and the field. From these two angles he will be able to get the angle made by the magnetic north and the line joining his present position and the field. This will give him the direction of the field itself.

H. The platoon commander has now got the direction of the field. He is pointing in the direction of the field. He is saying to his men, "That is the direction in which the field is, and that is the direction in which we have to go."

A1 : What is this sort of map used for ?
2 : What is its form ?
3 : Why do you say it is a square ?
4 : How long are the sides ?
5 : What is one inch on the map equal to ?
6 : What scale has the map been made to ?
7 : The distance between two points on the map is three inches. What is the true distance ?

B1 : What are the straight lines running down the map ?
2 : Are any two of these lines parallel to one another ?
3 : Why do you say they are parallel ?
4 : What is the number of grid lines in the picture ?
5 : Why would you say they are parallel ?
6 : Where are another three lines ?
7 : Are these 'cross lines' parallel ?
8 : Why do you say they are parallel ?
9 : The grid lines and the cross lines are not parallel to one another. At what angles are they to one another ?

C1 : There is a third group of lines. Are they straight ?
2 : What name do we give to them ?
3 : Are they parallel to one another ?
4 : Why do you say that they aren't parallel ?
5 : What is the form of some of these lines ?
6 : What is the form of other lines like ?
7 : Is every point on this line as high as every other point ?
8 : How high are all points on line 1 (line 2, line 3) ?
9 : What two things are you able to say about a place marked on the paper ?

D : There is a sign marked on the map for a river. What are the other signs for ?

E1 : Who is the man in the picture ?
2 : What is on his table ?
3 : Where has he been ordered to go ?
4 : What is he to do there ?
5 : Has the position of the field on the map been given ?
6 : What sort of map reference has he been given ?
7 : What other sort of map reference is sometimes given ?
8 : Is this better than a six figure map reference ?
9 : Why is a six figure reference better ?
10 : The position of the field on the map has now been fixed. What is the platoon commander now measuring ?
11 : What is the distance on the map ?
12 : What is the true distance ?
13 : Why is the platoon commander so certain about this ?

F1 : Now that he is certain of the distance what is the second question to be answered ?
2 : He has made a line giving the distance of the field from his present position. What angle is he measuring ?
3 : What size is the angle ?
4 : What has he now got ?
5 : How will he get the direction of the field itself ?

G1 : What sort of instrument is a compass ?
2 : Which ways are the two ends of the needle pointing ?
3 : What two directions will the compass give the platoon commander ?
4 : What angle has he been given ?
5 : What is the size of the angle he has been able to get for himself ?
6 : From these two angles what other angle will he be able to get ?
7 : What will this give him ?

H1 : Now that he has the direction of the field where is he pointing ?
2 : What is he saying to his men ?

P1 : What am I measuring ?
N : Side of table, seat, room, blackboard, my neck, my chest, my legs.
2 : What am I lifting ?
N : Box, seat, a stone, the board.
3 : Are these (lines) parallel to one another ?
S : Lines : roads, streets, rivers, railway lines.
N : Make lines on blackboard.
4 : The (house) is in that direction.
S : House : post-office, railway station, school, hospital, farm, factory, mill, etc.
N : The learner has his finger pointing in the right direction.
5 : We are walking in the direction of the (hill).
S : Hill : garden, bridge, river, farm, camp.
6 : The direction of the (north) wind is from (north to south).
S : North : south, east, west.

Unit 14: The Sea-front

sand, grey, mass, grain



14

A. This is a part of a town facing the sea. Between the sea and the sea-front there is sand. Sand is different from earth; it is softer. The colour of sand is yellow. We get most of our sand from the edge of the sea.

B. Sand is of very great use to us. It is used in making glass. And in war-time sand-bags are used to keep us safe from bombs and bullets.

C. In the picture the sea is quite smooth. When the sea is smooth its colour is blue. But the colour of a rough sea is not blue; it is grey. The sky, when it is clear, is blue. But when it is clouded it is grey. Grey is not one of the brighter colours, like red or blue. Green and khaki uniforms are common in the Indian Army, but grey uniforms are very uncommon.

D. The long stretch of sand between the sea-front and the sea is the sands. On any warm bright day you will see boys and girls playing on the sands, running about or making little houses with masses of wet sand. A mass of sand is different from a grain of sand. A grain of sand is one very small bit of sand, but a mass of sand is a very great number of grains of sand together. In the same way when there is a great group of stones together we say it is a mass of stones. When there is a great group of buildings together we say it is a mass of buildings. A great group of persons is a mass of persons. A great group of clouds is a mass of clouds. At one end of the sands in the picture you see a great number of stones massed together.

E. A very small bit of sand is a grain of sand. A very small bit of salt is a grain of salt. A very small bit of sugar is a grain of sugar. Of a cruel and hard-hearted person we say that he has not a grain of feeling in him. Of a person who is completely without fear we say that he has not a grain of fear in him. When there is no rice in the house at all we say we haven't even a grain of rice in the house.

F. We give the name grain to the seed of any grass-plant which is used for food. Rice is a food-grain. Another food-grain is wheat. Rice is the food-grain which is most common in the East, and wheat is the food-grain which is most common in the West.

A1 : What is this?
2 : Where is the sand?
3 : How is sand different from earth?
4 : What is the colour of sand?
5 : Where do we get most of our sand?

B1 : What is one of the uses of sand?
2 : What is another use?

C1 : What colour is the sea when it is smooth?
2 : What is its colour when it is rough?
3 : What colour is the sky when it is clear?
4 : What is its colour when it is clouded?
5 : Is grey a bright colour?
6 : Which colours would you say are bright?
7 : What colour uniforms are common in the Indian Army?
8 : What colour uniforms are uncommon?

D1 : What are sands?
2 : What will you see on any warm bright day on the sands?
3 : What do boys and girls do with wet sand?
4 : What is a grain of sand?
5 : What is a mass of sand?
6 : What is a mass of stones?
7 : What do we say of a great group of buildings together?
8 : What is a mass of persons?
9 : What do we say of a great group of clouds?
10 : What are massed together at one end of the sands?

E1 : What is a grain of sand?
2 : What is a grain of salt?
3 : What is a very small bit of sugar?
4 : What sort of person hasn't a grain of feeling in him?
5 : What do we say of a person who is completely without fear?
6 : When would you say you haven't a grain of rice?

F1 : What sort of seed is named grain?
2 : Give the names of two food-grains.
3 : Which food-grain is most common in the East (West)?

P1 : What is sand used for?
A : Making cement, glass, sandbags, jumping-pits, etc.
2 : (Is) (this) (box) grey?
S : Box : bag, coat, shirt, hat, trousers, shorts, socks, boots, shoes.
3 : What is the colour of the (sea when it is rough)?
S : Sea when it is, etc. : sky when it is clouded.
4 : There (is) a mass of (sand) (near the door).
S : Sand : earth, rice, wheat, etc.

5 : (Men) are massing round the (maidan).

S : Men, maidan : women, hall ; troops, town ; clouds, in the sky.

6 : The (tanks) were massed together.

S : Tanks : jeeps, lorries, arms, etc.

7 : Is this a grain of (sand) ?

S : Sand : sugar, salt, rice, wheat, bajri, jowar, etc.

Seatwork

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :* necessary, possible, sign, angle, measure, instrument, scale, lift, parallel, direction, sand, grey, mass, grain.

1. Steam is coming out of the kettle ; this is a............. that the water is boiling.
2. It is very cold in the north ; warm clothing is quite.............................
3. A rain cloud is...in colour.
4. We get most of our..............................from the edge of the sea.
5. When we went down to the sea last time the boys had games on the ....
6. This man has not a..............................of sense in him.
7. There is a..............................of earth near the trench.
8. In which..was the car going ?
9. If two lines are the same distance from one another at every point they will be..............................to one another.
10. If you haven't the right sort of..............................you won't be able to put the engine right.
11. The table was in an..of the room.
12. It is not..............................to go more than forty miles an hour in this car.
13. Every division on this..............................is a tenth of an inch.
14. Every inch on this map is equal to ten miles. The map is made to..............................

B. *Put these statements differently by using the words in the brackets in the same or a different form :*

1. I am seeing how long the table is. (measure)

....

2. He is putting his name on the cheque. (sign)

....

3. No-one would be able to do the work in less than an hour. (possible)

....

4. One hundred rupees are needed. (necessary)

....

5. He is getting the table off the floor. (lift)

....

6. The wind is coming this way. (direction)

....

C. *Put the right word in the spaces :*

1. The station is...that direction.
2. The noise was coming..............................that direction.
3. The boat was coming..............................the direction ....the harbour.
4. The road and the river are parallel.............................. one another.
5. The two walls..........................an angle with one another.
6. When two lines come together at a point an angle is..............................
7. It is necessary..see the man.
8. It may be necessary..........................you to go to Calcutta.
9. If there was no petrol there would be no motor transport. It was the discovery of petrol which ....motor transport possible.

D. *Here are some answers. Put down questions to which they may be the answers :*

1. ....
Ten more rifles will be necessary.
2. ....
Yes, a knowledge of English is quite necessary.
3. ....
No, it is not necessary to go by bus.
4. ....
No, it isn't possible to go for a walk now.
5. ....
It wasn't possible to see him because he was not in his office yesterday.
6. ....
It is the discovery of steam power which has made railways possible.
7. ....
A blue line is the sign for a river.
8. ....
No, the letter is not signed.
9. ....
This angle is 80°.
10. ....
An angle is measured with a protractor.
11. ....
I am measuring the man's chest.
12. ....
A tank is an instrument of destruction.
13. ....
The boxes are lifted with a crane.
14. ....
We were going in the direction of the school.
15. ....
The direction of a north wind is from north to south.
16. ....
The tanks were coming from that direction.
17. ....
The bags are full of sand.
18. ....
50,000 troops have been massed on this front.
19. ....
We make glass with sand.
20. ....
We get our grain from a co-operative store.

Unit 15: Sailing In A Boat

deep, wave, boat, sail



A. Lt. Modi is home on leave. He had been working so hard that the doctor said that he was badly in need of a change and sent him to a quiet little place by the seaside. Lt. Modi and Mrs. Modi with their two little boys have been in this place for three weeks now, looking at the beautiful views, of which the countryside is full, taking quiet walks on the hill-slopes or in the woods, fishing in the river or going for a swim in the sea.

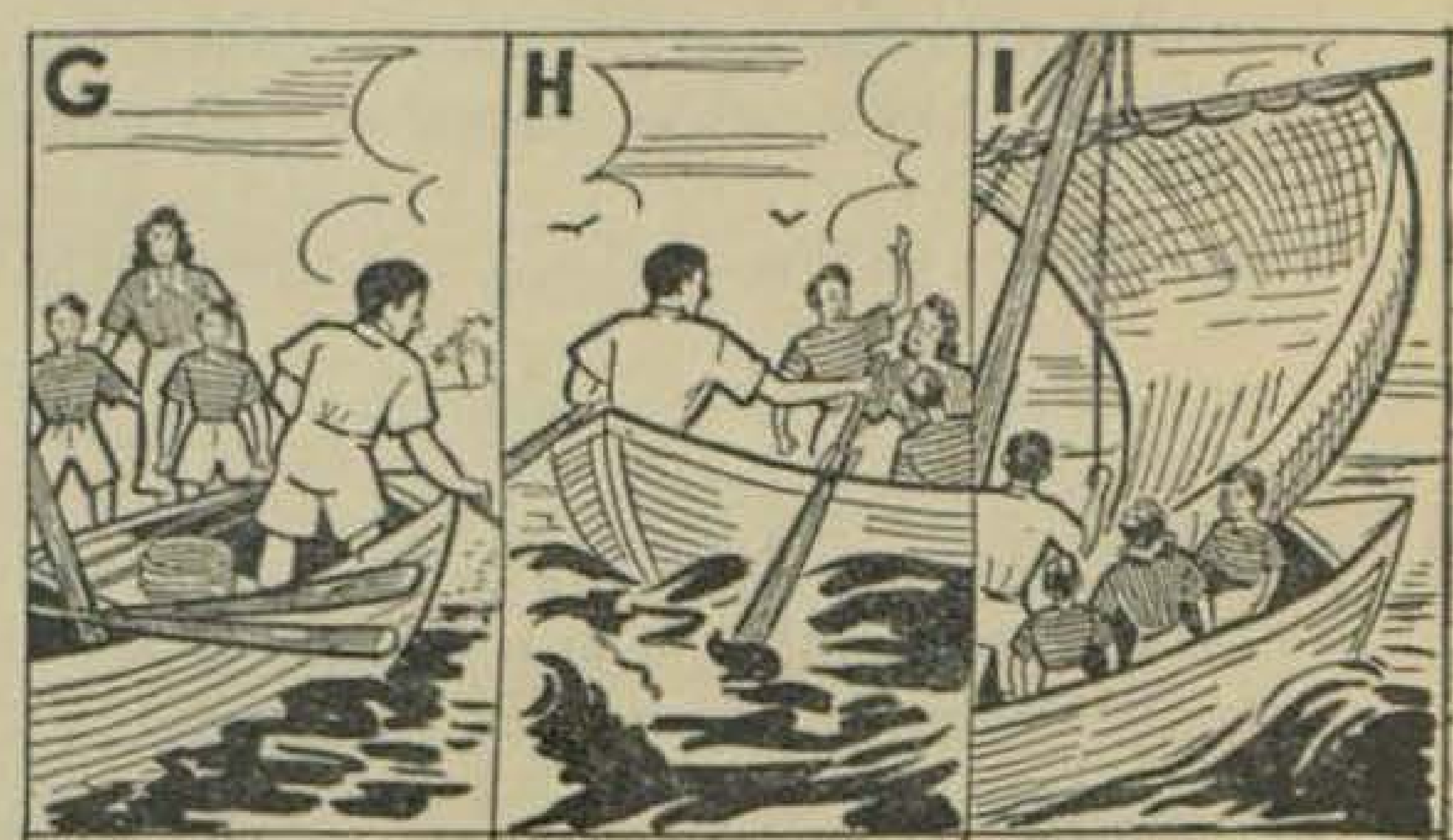
B. In the picture we see their boys, Minu and Patel, playing on the sands. Minu and Patel are making holes in the sand. The holes are quite deep. Minu's hole is eight inches deep and Patel's hole is about a foot deep. There is great competition between the two to see who is able to make the deeper hole in five minutes. They are putting their hands into the holes and taking out masses of sand which they are putting at the sides of the holes. Questioned about these holes they said that they were not making holes at all but 'trenches,' like the ones which they saw when they were in Calcutta. These trenches, they said, were going to be ten yards long and three feet deep, and if there was an air-raid they would all be able to take cover in them.

C. Six or seven yards away from the boys is Lt. Modi. He is in a bathing dress. Part of his legs are under water. The sea is not deep here; the water comes up only to his knees. If he goes a little farther into the sea it will get a little deeper; the water will come up to his chest. If he goes farther still the sea will get even deeper; the water may come up to his chin. The farther he goes the deeper the sea will get. We are sometimes able to say how deep the water is by looking at its colour. Where the water is not very deep it has a light blue colour, but where the water is very deep it has a deep blue colour. The sea is not very deep near the edge of the land, but far out in the sea the water may be as deep as three miles. In the Pacific Ocean there are places which are five miles deep.

D. Mrs. Modi is at the edge of the water. She has been in that position for quite a long time now. She is looking at something with great interest. She is watching the waves coming up the sands and going back again. It is something which we are never tired of watching—the waves coming in and going out. The sea is never quiet; it is for ever moving. And when the waves come up against the land there is a loud noise, sometimes, if the waves are very high, like that of thunder.

E. What makes these waves? How are these waves caused? It is the wind which is the cause of waves in the sea. The wind blowing over the face of the sea makes the waves. The stronger the wind is the higher the waves will be. Sometimes the waves may be as high as sixty feet. When the waves are very high we say the sea is very rough. Mrs. Modi is watching the waves, and Lt. Modi, out in the sea, is waving to her with his hand.

F. Waving a hand or a flag is a way of sending a message. On the railway, when the guard of a train gives his red flag a wave, it is a sign that the train is to be stopped. And when the green flag is waved it is a sign that the engine-driver may make a start. In the Army messages are sent by waving flags. Every scout is given a knowledge of how to send a message by waving a flag. On a battle-field the waving of a white flag is a sign that the enemy is ready to give up fighting—to 'surrender'.



G. Lt. Modi has had his swim. Now he is going to take the boat out on the river. The boat in the picture is a fishing-boat. It is fixed to a nail with a chain. Lieutenant Modi is getting the boat free while Mrs. Modi and the boys are looking on. They all take much pleasure in boating. When they were in Calcutta last they went out in a boat on the River Hooghly. In the boat are two long smooth blades made of wood. These are for pushing the boat forward. We give them the name 'oars'. Together with the oars is a sail, some strong cord and two long rods. The rods are the sail-supports. The fisherman who is the owner of the boat is going with the Modis. If the sail has to be put up his help may be needed.

H. The boat is now on the river. Lt. Modi has the oars and is pushing the boat forward with them. It is very hard work because the boat has to be pushed against the current. But the water is not rough and the boat is going forward smoothly. They are all very happy ; one of the boys is saying that he will become a sailor when he is a man.

I. The family is now on the way back. But Lt. Modi is not pushing the boat with the oars. It is not necessary to make use of the oars. They are going in the same direction as the wind. The sail is up and the wind is driving the boat. A sail is of use only when you are sailing with the wind and not against it.

A1 : Who is home on leave ?
2 : Why was he badly in need of a change ?
3 : Where did the doctor send him ?
4 : How long has he been at the sea-side ?
5 : What has he been doing while he has been here ?

B1 : What are the boys, Minu and Patel, doing ?
2 : What sort of holes are they making ?
3 : How deep is Minu's hole ?
4 : How deep is Patel's hole ?
5 : What are they having a competition about ?
6 : How are they making the holes ?
7 : What did they say the holes were ?
8 : Where had they seen 'trenches' ?
9 : How long and deep are they going to make the trenches ?
10 : What use would these trenches be ?

C1 : At what distance from the boys is Lt. Modi ?
2 : What is he dressed in ?
3 : Why are you able to see only part of his legs ?
4 : Is the sea deep here ?
5 : How far up his body does the water come ?
6 : When will the water come up to his chest ?
7 : Why will it come up to his chest when he goes farther ?
8 : Why will it come up to his chin if he goes farther still ?
9 : How is it possible sometimes to say how deep the water is ?
10 : What colour is the water when it is not deep ?
11 : What colour is it when it is very deep ?
12 : How deep is the sea near the edge of the land ?
13 : How deep may the water be far out in the sea ?
14 : How deep is the sea in some parts of the Pacific Ocean ?

D1 : Where is Mrs. Modi ?
2 : How long has she been in that position ?
3 : What is she watching with great interest ?
4 : What are the waves doing ?
5 : What do we never get tired of watching at the sea-side ?
6 : Is the sea ever quiet ?
7 : What is it for ever doing ?
8 : When do the waves make a loud noise ?
9 : What is the noise like if the waves are very high ?

E1 : How are these waves caused ?
2 : What sort of wind makes high waves ?
3 : How high are waves sometimes ?
4 : Do we say the sea is smooth when the waves are very high ?
5 : What is Mrs. Modi watching ?
6 : What is Lt. Modi doing with his hand ?

F1 : How would you send a message with your hand or a flag ?
2 : When does the guard of a train give his red flag a wave ?
3 : When does the guard give his green flag a wave ?
4 : How are messages sometimes sent in the Army ?
5 : What is every scout given a knowledge of ?
6 : How does the enemy on the battle-field give a sign that he is ready to 'surrender' ?

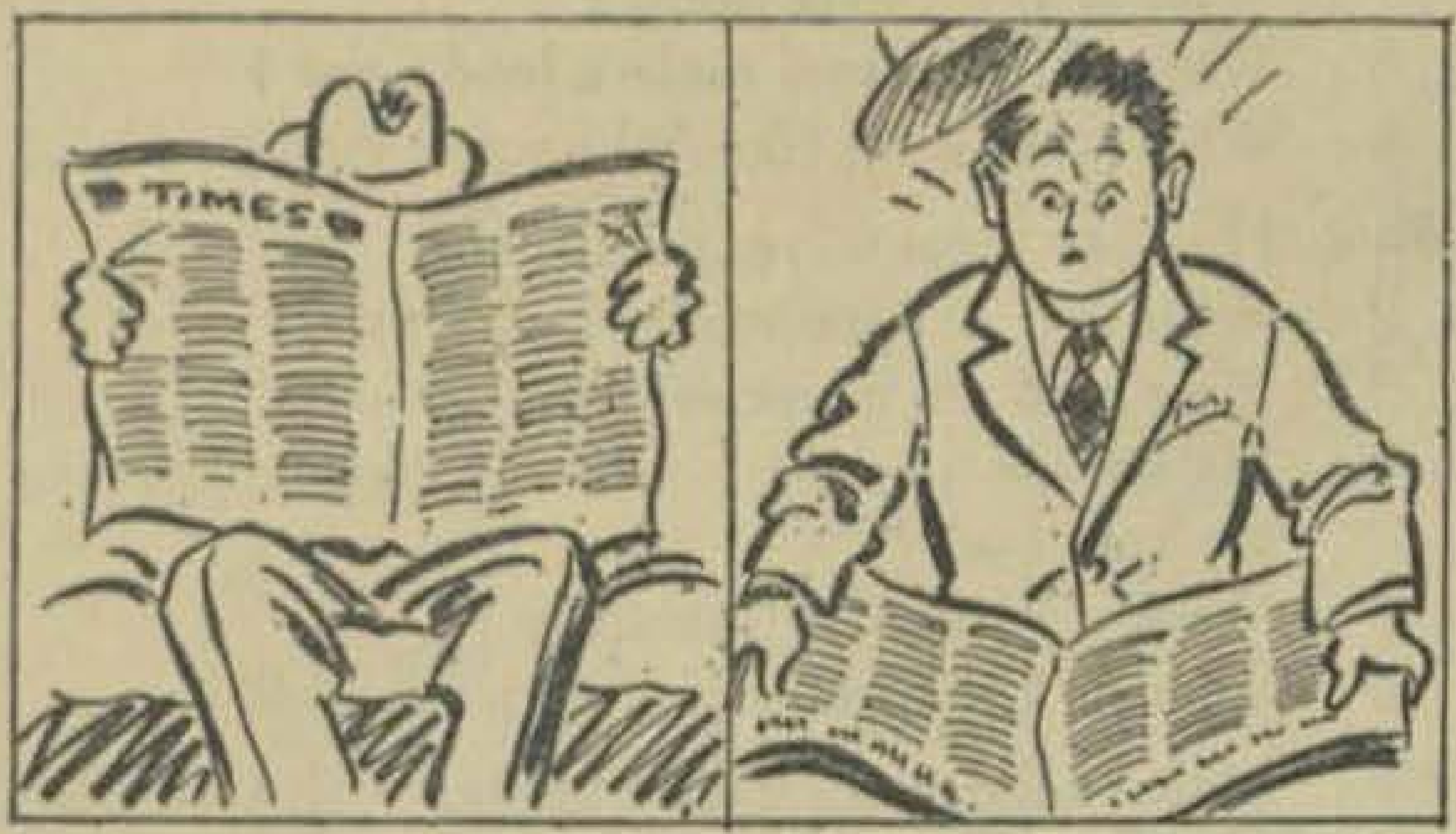
G1 : Now that Lt. Modi has had his swim, what is he going to do ?
2 : What sort of boat is it ?
3 : What is the boat fixed to ?
4 : How is the boat fixed to a nail ?
5 : What is Lt. Modi doing ?
6 : What are Mrs. Modi and the boys doing ?
7 : Why are they all going out in the boat ?
8 : What did they do when they were in Calcutta last ?
9 : What are the two long blades in the boat made of ?
10 : What are they for ?
11 : What name do we give them ?
12 : What other things are in the boat ?
13 : What are the two long rods used for ?
14 : Who is going in the boat with the Modis ?
15 : Why is he going with them ?

H1 : Where is the boat now ?
2 : Who has the oars ?
3 : What is Lt. Modi doing with them ?
4 : Why is it very hard work ?
5 : Why is the boat able to go forward smoothly ?
6 : What is one of the boys saying ?

I1 : Where are the family going now ?
2 : Why isn't Lt. Modi pushing the boat with the oars ?
3 : What is driving the boat forward ?
4 : When is a sail of use ?

Unit 16: A War of Surprises

surprise, sudden, probable



16

A. World War II was full of surprises. When something which everyone is certain will not take place does take place, or when something which everyone is certain will take place does not take place, we say we get a surprise, or that it is surprising. Let us make a list of these surprises of the war.

B. Surprise Number One: It seemed as if Germany would not be able to overcome Poland quickly. The Poles were good fighters and they had a great army. So when Poland was crushed in less than a week we got a great surprise.

C. Surprise Number Two: The minute Poland was crushed, we were certain that there would be fighting between France and Germany on the Western Front. But eight and a half months went by before a shot was fired on the Western Front. That was the second surprise.

D. Surprise Number Three: When the quiet on the Western Front was broken and Hitler made a sudden attack, first on Holland and Belgium and then on France, everyone was certain that Hitler would now be stopped and the German armies turned back. What a surprise it was when Holland gave up—'surrendered'—after only five days of fighting, Belgium after eighteen days and France after five weeks! We were surprised because we were certain that Britain and France had strong and well-armed 'forces' in the field. But as the fighting went on it became clear that the British and French forces were not at all strong or well-armed. That itself was surprising. Why did not England and France have more tanks and aeroplanes when they were attacked in May 1940?

E. Surprise Number Four: In less than two months Poland, Holland, Belgium and France were crushed and England itself was in great danger. A great part of the British Army had been taken prisoner in Northern France; there were only a small number of airplanes and tanks in England; and Germany was very strong. It seemed not only possible but probable that Hitler would make an attempt to get his armies into England. But it was one of the greatest surprises of the war that Hitler made no attempt to get his armies across at a time when he seemed so strong and England seemed so feeble. What did he do? He went right across Europe to make an attack on Russia.

F. Surprise Number Five: Germany and Russia had made an 'agreement' only one and a half years before, and they seemed such good friends that war between Germany and Russia did not seem probable. But on June 22nd 1941 Hitler made a sudden attack on Russia. The attack was so sudden that the Russian armies were taken by surprise. It seemed very probable but not quite certain that Hitler would be able to overcome Russia as quickly as he had overcome Poland and France. But surprisingly enough the Russians kept up a war of defence for one and a half years. The Germans went forward, however, driving the Russians before them till they were in full view of the great Russian towns of Leningrad, Moscow and Stalingrad.

G. Surprise Number Six: There had been such destruction of men and property in Russia that it seemed very probable that the Germans would be able to take these three great towns. And if the Germans had taken them the war might have come to an end then and there. But great was our surprise when suddenly, at the end of December 1942, a Russian 'counter-attack' was started from Leningrad in the north and Stalingrad in the south. The Russian armies went on and on, pushing the Germans back from every part of Russia. They went on and on and never came to a stop till the German armies were pushed back to the streets of Berlin and peace was made.

A1: Which war was full of surprises?
2: When do we say we get a surprise?

B1: When Poland was crushed in less than a week we got a surprise. Why?
2: Why did it seem that Germany would not be able to overcome Poland quickly?

C1: What was the second surprise of the war?
2: Why do you say it was a surprise?

D1: What was surprise number three?
2: Why were we surprised when France gave up fighting after five weeks?
3: It is surprising that Britain and France were not strong or well-armed at the time. Why?

E1: But what is one of the greatest surprises of the war?
2: Why was it a great surprise?

3 : Why do you say that England was very feeble at the time ?

4 : What seemed very probable at the time ?

5 : Did Hitler make an attempt to get his armies across ?

6 : What did he do ?

F1 : Did war between Germany and Russia seem probable in 1941 ?

2 : Why did it not seem probable ?

3 : What did Hitler do on June 22, 1941 ?

4 : Were the Russian armies taken by surprise ?

5 : Why were the Russians taken by surprise ?

6 : Did it seem certain that Hitler would be able to overcome Russia quickly ?

7 : How long did the Russians keep up a war of defence ?

8 : How far did the German armies get ?

9 : Did it seem probable that the Germans would take Leningrad, Moscow and Stalingrad ?

10 : Why did this seem probable ?

11 : Would the war have come to an end if the Germans had taken these three towns ?

12 : What did the Russians do to give us a surprise ?

13 : From where was the Russian counter-attack started ?

14 : When was it started ?

15 : How was it started ?

16 : What did the Russian armies do to the Germans ?

17 : How far did the Russian armies get before they came to a stop ?

P1 : A (sea) is not deep near the edge.

S : Sea : river, pond.

2 : The man is waving (his) (right hand).

S : Right hand : left hand, red flag, green flag, white flag, handkerchief, a bit of cloth.

3 : We are sailing (up the river).

S : Up the river : down the river, with the current, against the current, with the wind, against the wind, in the direction of the hill, in the direction of the camp, etc., away from the hill, etc.

4 : They were sailing at (five) miles an hour most of the time.

S : Five : six, etc.

5 : I am sailing (tomorrow) for (Japan).

S : Tomorrow : on Sunday, etc.

6 : He was not at all good at (English). It was a surprise to me that he got through the English test.

S : English : Urdu, map-reading, shooting

7 : I got a surprise when I saw a (snake) (in the cupboard).

S : Snake, in cupboard : tiger, on road ; leopard, in garden ; wolf, in field ; monkey, on bed ; rat, in haversack.

8 : (Khan) gave us a great surprise by coming first in the (running) competition.

S : Running : jumping, swimming, cycling, etc.

9 : It would be most surprising if the sun (came up) in the (west) tomorrow.

S : West : north, south.

10 : My (friend) had never sent me a letter before. I was surprised to get a letter from (him) this morning.

S : Friend : brother, sister, father, mother.

11 : There was a sudden change in the weather (this morning). (Yesterday) it was very warm.

S : This morning : last night, on Monday, etc.

12 : We made a sudden attack on the (Japanese). The enemy were not ready for the attack.

S : Japanese : Italians, Germans, town, fort, camp.

13 : The (car) took a sudden turn to the (right).

S : Car : lorry, bus, jeep, truck.
Right : left.

14 : Then suddenly (someone let off a rifle).

S : Rifle : gun ; a shot was fired ; a bomb was dropped.

15 : Though it is not certain it is probable that we will be sent to (Egypt) tomorrow.

S : Egypt : Burma, Singapore, Saigon, etc.

16 : It is more than possible, it is very probable that he will be made a (lance-naik) before the end of this month.

S : Lance-naik : naik, havildar, etc.

Seatwork

Put the right word from this list in the spaces :
deep, wave, boat, sail, surprise, sudden, probable.

1. The trench is 10 feet long, 2 feet wide and 4 feet ....
2. We went across the river in a..........
3. If there is no wind there will be no.......... in the sea.
4. The sky is clouded. It is..........that there will be rain in a short time.
5. The man was all right till eight o'clock last night. But at eight he took a..........turn for the worse.
6. He frequently gets ill ; it won't be a.......... if he is released from the Army.

Unit 17: A Harbour

harbour, ship, canvas, hollow



17

A. This is a picture of the harbour of a town in India. There are a number of ships in the harbour. The ships in the harbour are waiting to take men and goods from one country to another.

B. Most great towns on the sea have harbours. But not all harbours are equally good. Some harbours are better than others. A good harbour is one in which ships are quite safe from strong winds and high waves, so that goods may be put into them without trouble. Karachi, Bombay, Madras and Calcutta all have good harbours. Most of our goods going to Europe or to the Far East are sent from one of these great harbours.

C. Take a good look at the harbour in the picture. It has a long and wide landing-place—a place on which men and goods may be landed from the ship. Another name for a landing-place is 'docks'. On the docks are great cranes and other machines for lifting things up and putting them on a ship. Near the docks are lines of low buildings in which goods may be kept or stored. Sometimes goods may have to be kept in these buildings for a long time before it is possible to take them into inland towns.

D. There are two sorts of ships in the harbour, steamships and ships with sails—sailing-ships. The number of sailing-ships is smaller than the number of steamships. There are only two sailing-ships in the harbour, but there are six steamships. Sailing-ships are very uncommon these days. They are used only when goods have to be transported over short distance. They go more slowly than steamships, and when the wind is in the wrong direction it is not possible for them to make a start at all. Steamships not only go more quickly but they are able to go whatever the weather and whatever the direction of the wind. So when goods have to be transported quickly over long distances only steamships are used.

E. The sails of these sailing-ships are made not of cotton but of canvas. Canvas is a sort of cloth, but it is stronger and rougher than cotton. That is why canvas is used for making sails. Canvas is of the greatest use to us. We make shoes out of canvas, we sometimes make seats of canvas, and we make use of canvas at all times as a covering to keep out the sun and rain. Canvas is very widely used in the Army for making tents. When we are living in a tent we say we are 'under canvas'. Even the 'tarpaulins' used for covering goods when they are transported in lorries are made of canvas.

F. When steamships came into use for transporting men and goods over great distances sailing-ships went out of use. Steam was used for driving ships long before steam was used for driving railway engines. The first steamship was made about 150 years back by a man named Robert Fulton. The name of the steamship was the "Clermont." It was first used only for river-transport. The first steamship to make the sea-journey across the Atlantic Ocean from America to England was the "Savannah." When men in Ireland saw smoke coming out of the two great funnels (pipes) of the "Savannah" while it was on its way to England, it seemed to them as if the ship was on fire. So they quickly went to the help of the ship, taking with them great amounts of water in their boats. But when they came near and saw that the ship had no sails and that the smoke came from the engine which was driving the ship they were greatly surprised. They had never seen a steamship before.

G. The "Savannah" took fifteen days to make the journey. Today the journey between America and England is sometimes made in four days. In the days of the sailing-ship the journey between India and England took about three months. Today it is possible to make the same journey in less than fifteen days. In a number of ships today oil is used in the place of coal for driving the ship. It is not possible for every country to make ships today. A great amount of money is necessary. That is why it is only in countries like America or England or France that there are great ship-building works.



17

H. The ship which is nearest the landing-place in the picture has two funnels. Smoke is coming out of them. The ship is fixed to the docks (landing-place) with very strong cords. On the side of the ship are small boats hanging on chains. These boats are

necessary because while the ship is sailing on the sea it is sometimes in danger of going down. The boats would then be let down slowly into the sea and those in the ship would get away in the boats.

I. Between the floor of the ship and the under-part which is in the water there is a great amount of space. It is in this space—the hollow part of the ship—that goods are put. Every ship has a hollow space like this. In the picture we see the crane on the docks dropping great boxes into the hollow, or ' hold '.

J. When the hold of the ship is full and the ship is ready to go, the sailors will take off the cords by which the ship is fixed to the docks. The ship will then be free. When the ship is free there will be a whistle from the funnels, the engine will be started and off the ship will go.

A1 : What is this a picture of ?
2 : What are there in the harbour ?
3 : What are the ships waiting for ?

B1 : What sort of towns have harbours ?
2 : What is a good harbour ?
3 : Why is it a good thing to keep strong winds and high waves from a harbour ?
4 : Which towns in India have good harbours ?
5 : Where are goods sent from these great harbours ?

C1 : What is the landing-place in the harbour used for ?
2 : What is the other name for a landing-place ?
3 : What are the great cranes on the dock for ?
4 : What are the lines of low buildings near the docks for ?
5 : Why are goods sometimes kept in these buildings for a long time ?

D1 : What are the two sorts of ships in the harbour ?
2 : Which is greater—the number of sailing-ships or of steamships ?
3 : What is the number of sailing-ships (steamships) ?
4 : Which ships are less commonly seen in these days ?
5 : When are sailing-ships used ?
6 : Why aren't sailing-ships as good as steamships ?
7 : What sort of ships are used when goods have to be transported over long distances ?

E1 : What cloth are the sails of sailing-ships made of ?
2 : How is canvas different from cotton ?
3 : What do we make out of canvas ?
4 : What is it used for in the Army ?
5 : What is another way of saying you are living in a tent ?
6 : What are ' tarpaulins ' used for ?
7 : What are they made of ?

F1 : When did sailing-ships go out of use for transporting men and goods over great distances ?
2 : Which came first—steam-engines or steamships ?
3 : When was the first steamship made ?
4 : By whom was it made ?
5 : What was its name ?
6 : What was it only used for at first ?
7 : What is the name of the ship which made the first journey across the Atlantic ?
8 : How does the smoke from the engine come out of a steamship ?
9 : When men in Ireland saw smoke coming from the " Savannah " what did they do ?
10 : Why did they do this ?
11 : Why were they surprised to see the ship had no sails ?

G1 : How long did the ' Savannah ' take to make the journey between America and England ?
2 : How long does a ship take now ?
3 : How long did a sailing-ship take to get to England from India ?
4 : In what time is it possible to do the same journey now ?
5 : What is now used in some ships in place of coal ?
6 : Why isn't it possible for every country to make ships ?
7 : Which countries have great ship-building works ?

H1 : Which ship has two funnels ?
2 : How is the ship fixed to the docks ?
3 : What do you see on the side of the ship ?
4 : Why are these boats necessary ?
5 : What would be done if the ship was in danger ?

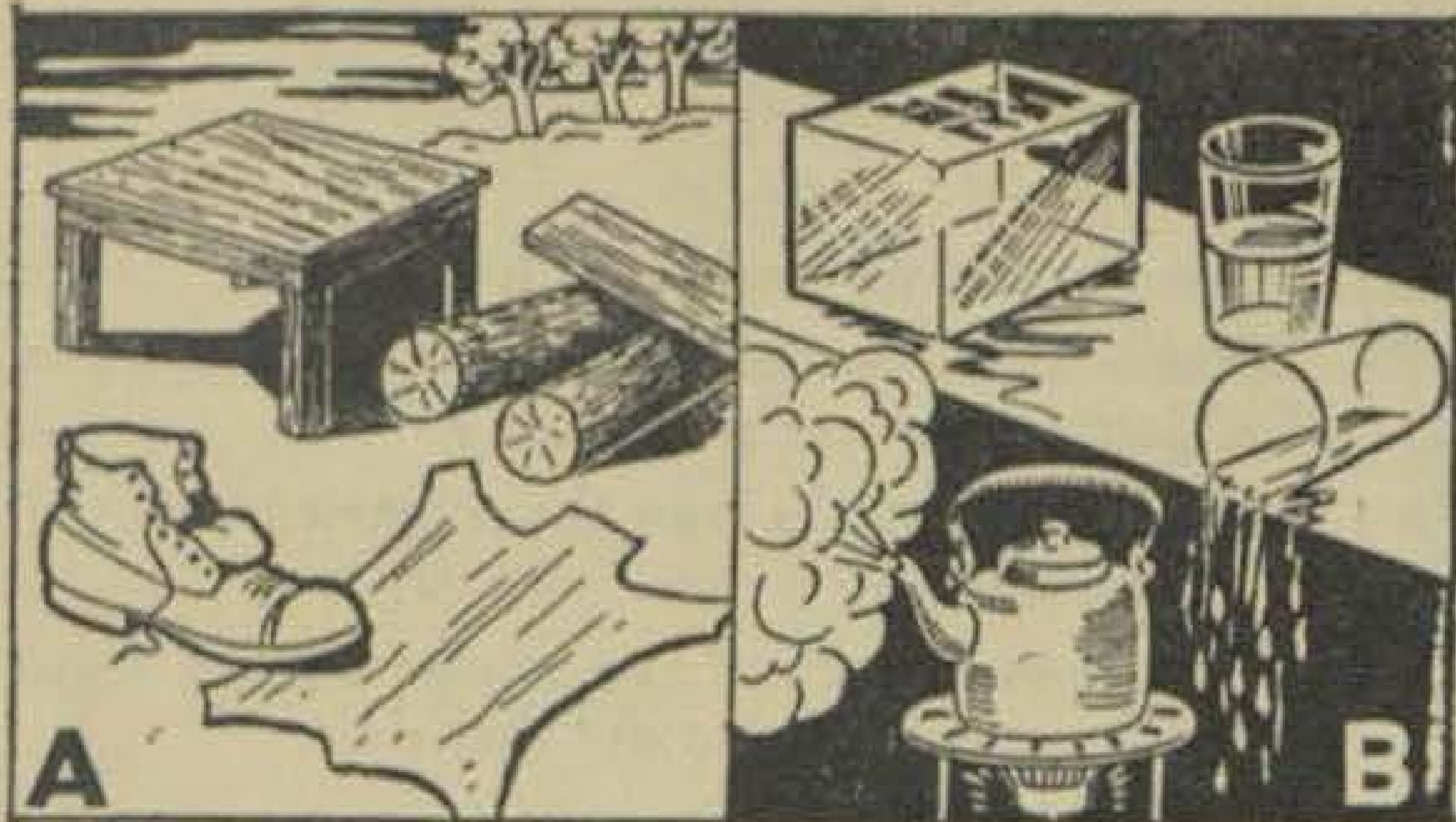
I1 : What is between the floor of the ship and the underpart which is in the water ?
2 : What is kept in this space, the hollow part of the ship ?
3 : Has every ship a hollow space like this ?
4 : What is being dropped into the hold of the ship ?

J1 : What will the sailors do when the hold is full and the ship is ready to go ?
2 : When will the engines be started ?

P1 : What sort of ship is this ?
N : **Point to pictures of sailing-ship, steamship, warship.**
2 : Is a (boat) in a harbour quite safe from rough seas or strong winds ?
S : **Boat : sailing-ship, steamship, warship.**

Unit 18: The Qualities of a Good Soldier

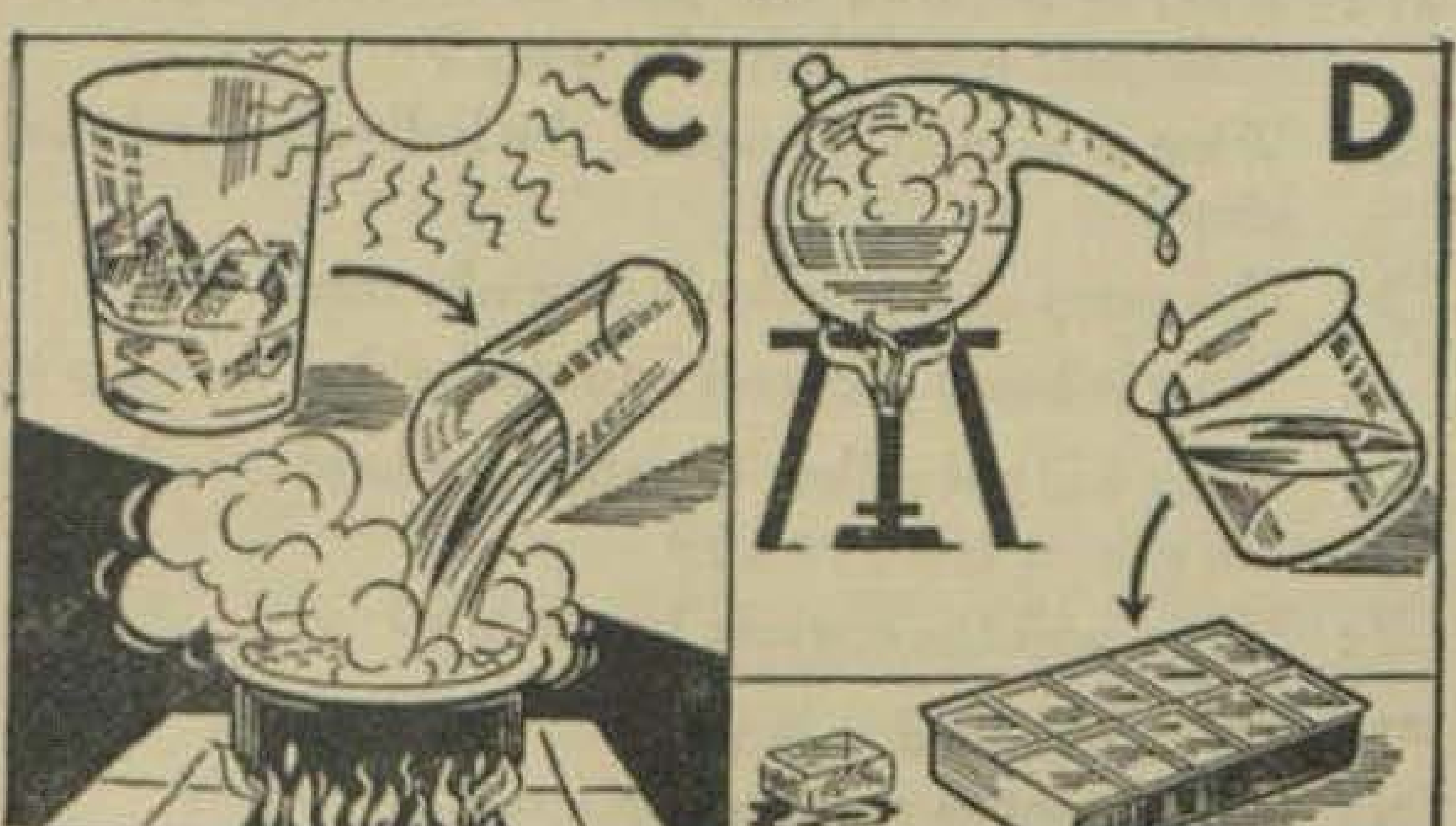
substance, solid, liquid, quality



18

A. Wood, leather, rubber, cotton, silk, wool, iron, steel and aluminium are all things out of which we make other things. They are substances. A table is a thing, but the wood from which it is made is a substance. A boot is a thing, but the leather from which it is made is a substance. A motor tyre is a thing, but the rubber from which it is made is a substance. A bit of cloth is a thing, but the cotton from which it is made is a substance. An iron chain is a thing, but the iron from which it is made is a substance. A nail and a screw are two different things, but they are made of the same substance—steel.

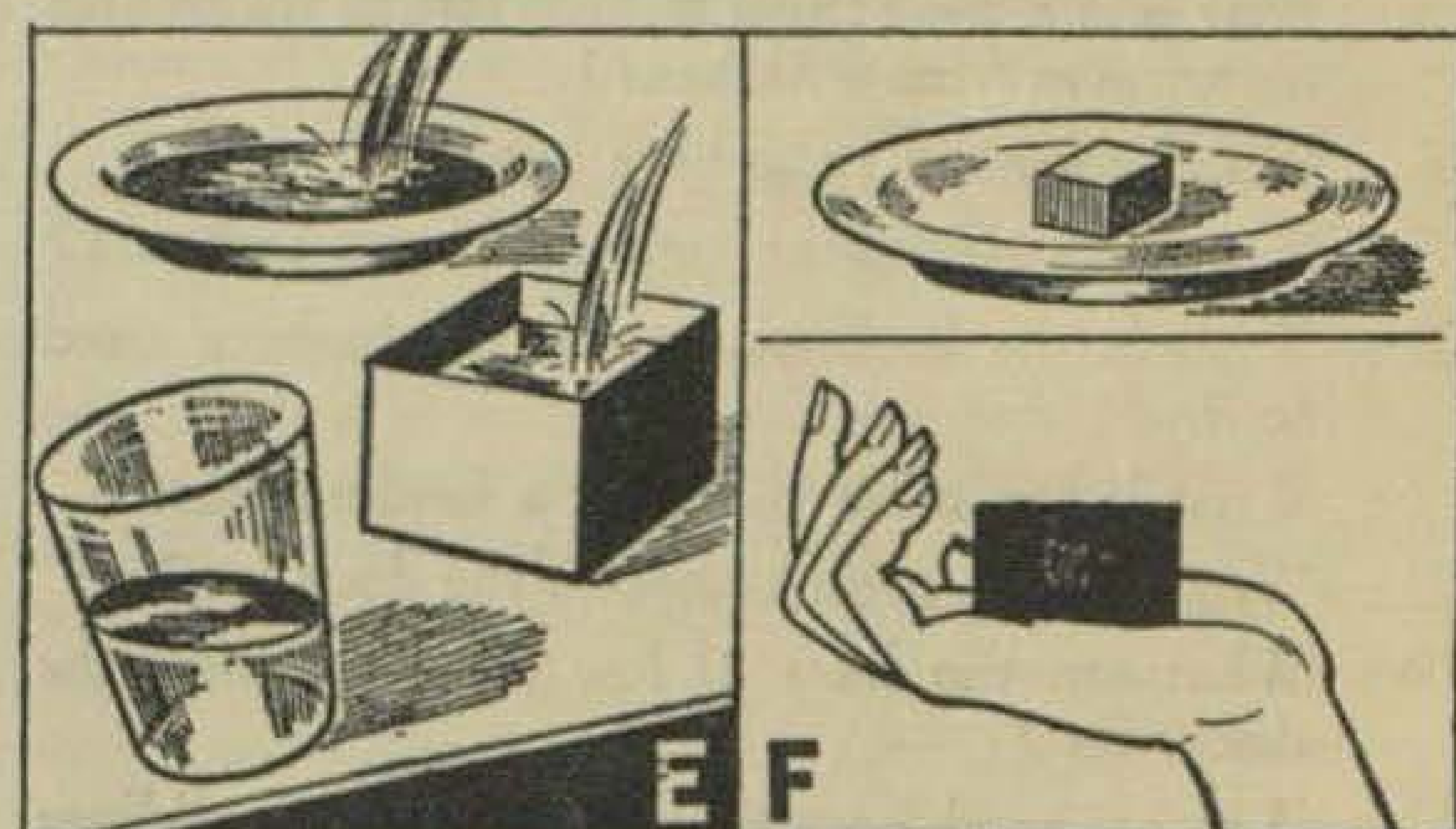
B. The substances which we have named are all solids. But there are substances which are liquids. A bit of iron is a solid. A bit of leather is a solid. A bit of rubber is a solid. But water is a liquid. Milk is a liquid. Coffee is a liquid. Tea is a liquid. A substance may be a solid or a liquid. Sometimes the same substance may have three different forms: it may be a solid or a liquid or a gas. Water, ice and steam are the same substance. But water is a liquid, ice is a solid and steam is a gas.



18

C. A solid may be changed into a liquid by heating it. A liquid may be changed into a gas by heating it. If a bit of iron is heated to a certain degree of temperature it will become a liquid. If the liquid iron is heated still more it will become a gas. But the amount of heat which is necessary to make solid iron into liquid iron or liquid iron into a gas is very great. It is said that when the atom bomb was dropped on the Japanese town of Hiroshima some of the iron and steel round about were changed into liquid and even into gas.

D. Solid substances may be changed into liquids and liquid substances into gases. In the same way gases may be changed into liquids and liquids may be changed into solids. Heat is necessary for changing solid substances into liquids and liquid substances into gases. In the same way cold is necessary for changing a gas into a liquid and a liquid into a solid. Steam may be changed into water by making it cold and water may be changed into ice by making it still colder. In some of the European countries great stretches of water are changed into ice in the cold weather. Sometimes great masses of ice come down into the Atlantic Ocean with the current from the far north; they are a great danger to the ships sailing between Europe and America.



18

E. A liquid is different from a solid in a number of ways. A liquid and a solid have different qualities. A liquid has no fixed form. It takes the form of the vessel into which it is put. If you put water into a plate the water will be round. If you put it into a square tin box the water will be square. This is one of the qualities of a liquid; it has no fixed form. A second quality of a liquid is that it is not possible to take it in our hand. If we take water in our hand it goes through our fingers and down to the earth in drops. This is a second quality of a liquid; it is broken up into drops. A third quality of a liquid is that it keeps its level. If you put some water into a vessel the level of the water will be the same at all points.

F. But the qualities of a solid are different. It has a fixed form. It does not take the form of the vessel in which it is put. If you put a bit of iron in a plate it will not take the form of the plate in which it is put. A second quality of a solid is that it is not broken up into drops when you take it in your hand.



18

G. Different substances have different qualities. One of the qualities of iron is that when it is heated it becomes a liquid. One of the qualities of rubber is that it may be stretched and made longer by pulling. One of the qualities of wool is that it keeps our bodies warm.

H. Different animals have different qualities. One of the qualities of a dog is that it is true to its owner. Another quality of a dog is that it keeps a watch over the house and property of its owner.

I. Different men have different qualities. Some are good; others are bad. Some are kind; others are cruel. Some are very bright; others have no brains. Some are hard-working; others have no taste for work. Some keep smiling all the time; others get angry very quickly.

J. What are the qualities of a good soldier? A good soldier is strong and healthy. He keeps his weapons clean. He has a good knowledge of the use of his weapons. He has no fear of death. He does his duty even when he is in the greatest danger. He is loyal to his friends, to his country and to his King.

A1 : What are wood, leather, rubber, cotton, etc.?
2 : From what substance is a table (boot, motor tyre, shirt, chain, nail, screw) made?

B1 : Is a bit of iron (leather, rubber) a solid or a liquid?
2 : What is water (milk, coffee, tea)?
3 : What three different forms may the same substance sometimes have?

C1 : How may a solid be changed into a liquid?
2 : How may a liquid be changed into a gas?
3 : When will a bit of iron become a liquid (gas)?
4 : How much heat is necessary to make solid iron into liquid or liquid iron into gas?
5 : What did the atom bomb dropped on Hiroshima do to the iron and steel round about?

D1 : May gases be changed into liquids?
2 : May liquids be changed into solids?
3 : What is necessary to do this?
4 : How may steam be changed into water?
5 : How may water be changed into ice?
6 : When are great stretches of water changed into ice?
7 : How do great masses of ice from the far north get into the Atlantic Ocean?
8 : To which ships are they a great danger?

E1 : Has a liquid a fixed form?
2 : What form does a liquid take?
3 : What form will water take if it is put into a plate (square tin box)?
4 : What then is one of the qualities of a liquid?
5 : What does water do when we take it in our hand?
6 : What is the second quality of a liquid?
7 : If you put some water into a vessel will the level of the water be the same at all points?
8 : What is the third quality of a liquid?

F1 : What is one quality of a solid?
2 : If you put a bit of iron in a plate will it take the form of the plate into which it is put?
3 : What is a second quality of a solid?

G1 : Have different substances the same qualities?
2 : What is one of the qualities of iron (rubber, wool)?

H1 : Have different animals the same qualities?
2 : What are two qualities of a dog?

I : How are men different from one another?

J : What are some of the qualities of a good soldier?

P1 : Is a (bit of wood) solid or liquid?
S : Bit of wood : bit of glass, bit of stone, soup, cocoa, beer, etc.

2 : What is (chlorine)?
S : Chlorine : Phosgene, mustard gas, etc.

3 : Is this (seat) made of the same substance as this (table)?
S : Seat, table : shoe, bag; shoe, belt; window-frame, bag; ring, watch; shirt, coat; pot, kettle; glove, sock; book, calendar; comb, button; bottle, flower-pot.

4 : What is (one) quality of a metal?
S : One : a second, a third.

5 : What is (one) quality of a good teacher?
S : One : a second, a third, a fourth.
N : Has learning and knowledge, never gets angry quickly, is interested in his work, is interested in his learners.

6 : The quality of this (paper) is not good; I won't take it.
S : Paper : cloth, thread, canvas, butter, cord, chain, leather, instrument, grain.

7 : The quality of Indian (cloth) is higher than the quality of Japanese cloth.
S : Cloth : silk, wool, pencils, etc.

Unit 19 : How Messages Are Sent

thick, thin, fat, wire

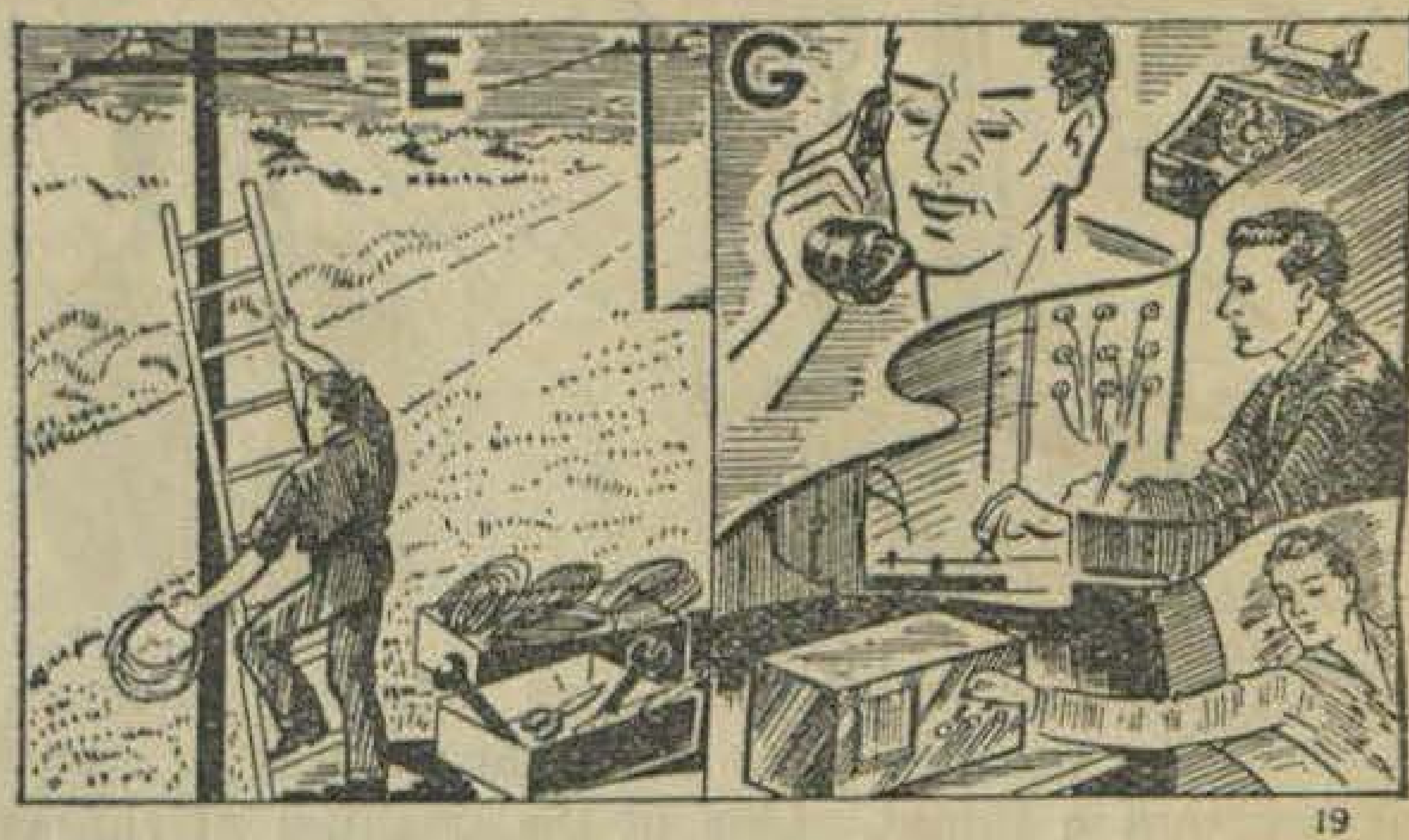


A. On the left side of the table there are a book, a bit of cord and a stick. On the right side of the table there is another book, another bit of cord and another stick. The two bits of cord are on the books and the two sticks are resting against the wall. The man at the left side of the table is measuring the size of the book which is near him with a scale. How long is the book? How wide is the book? And how thick is it? The man is measuring the book to see how thick it is. The book is one inch thick. It is a very thick book. But the book on the right side of the table is not thick; it is very thin. It is only a quarter of an inch thick. The cord on the left is thick; the cord on the right is thin. The stick on the left is thick; the stick on the right is thin.

B. The man on the left is thin. But the man on the right is fat. We say a board is thick, a plate of glass is thick, a bit of leather is thick. But we do not say a man is thick; we say a man is fat. A fat man has much fat on his body. A thin man has very little fat on his body. A fat man is fatter than a thin man because there is more fat on his body.

C. Fat is a sort of substance which is stored in the body. There is a great amount of fat in substances such as milk, butter and ghee. Persons who have great amounts of milk, butter and ghee with their meals every day are certain to become very fat. A certain amount of fat in the body is necessary to keep a man healthy. A man who has been ill for some time and has not had any solid food becomes thinner and thinner. This is because the fat which was stored in his body is being used as food by the body little by little every day. Some fat men are strong, but not all fat men are strong.

D. The thin man in the picture has very thin hair on his head. There is very little hair on his head and the spaces between the hairs are very wide. Thin hair on the head is a sign that a man is getting old. It is probable that the thin man in the picture is over forty-five years old. The man on the right has very thick hair on his head. He has much hair and the hairs are nearer together. Thick hair is a sign that a man is still young. It is probable that the fat man in the picture is less than thirty years old.



E. There are two posts in this picture; hanging between the two posts is a wire made of copper. It is a telegraph wire. A man is working at the post on the left. He has some more wire in his hand and he is going to put it up between the telegraph posts. One end of the wire will be fixed to the top of one of the posts and the other end of the wire will be fixed to the top of the other post. At the foot of the telegraph post at which the man is working there are two boxes. One of the two boxes is full of wire. In the other box there are a number of instruments such as knives, scissors, spanners, hammers, etc.

F. In any great town we may see telegraph and telephone wires overhead. Telegraph and telephone wires are used for sending messages, but there is a third sort of wire which is used for sending electric current. These wires are electric wires. As a rule electric wires are much thicker than telegraph or telephone wires.

G. In the old days messages were sent by making fires on hill-tops or by waving a flag or by making a sound on a 'drum'. Today messages are sent by telegraph or by telephone or by radio or wireless. The first man to make a telegraph machine was an American named Morse. Telegraph messages are sent by making sounds on an electric board. The first man to make a telephone was another American named Alexander Bell. A telephone is better than a telegraph because with a telephone it is possible for a man to do the talking himself. The third way of sending a message is by wireless. No wires are necessary for sending a wireless message. That is the sense of the word wireless—without wires. The first man to send a wireless message was an Italian named Marconi.

H. Wire is widely used in the Army for defence. We put 'barbed wire' all round a place which has to be kept safe from a sudden attack by enemy infantry. And one form of defence against air attack is to have a number of balloons fixed to the top of long thin wires which go high up in the air. The other end of the wires is fixed to the earth. A number of these balloons together make a balloon barrage.

A1 : What is on the left (right) side of the table ?
2 : Where are the two bits of cord (sticks) ?
3 : What is the man at the left side of the table doing ?
4 : Why is he measuring the book ?
5 : How thick is the book ?
6 : Would you say it is a thick book ?
7 : How thick is the book on the right side ?
8 : Would you say it is a thick book ?
9 : Which cord is thick (thin) ?
10 : Which stick is thick (thin) ?

B1 : Which man is thin (fat) ?
2 : We say a board is thick. Do we say a man is thick ?
3 : How is the body of a fat man different from the body of a thin man ?
4 : Why is a fat man fatter than a thin man ?

C1 : What is fat ?
2 : Where is it stored ?
3 : Why are persons who have a great amount of milk, butter and ghee with their meals certain to become fat ?
4 : Is fat in the body necessary to keep a man healthy ?
5 : Why does a man who has been ill for some time and not had any solid food become thinner and thinner ?
6 : Are all fat men strong ?

D1 : What sort of hair has the thin man in the picture ?
2 : Why do we say his hair is thin ?
3 : Why is it probable that the thin man is over forty-five years old ?
4 : What sort of hair has the man on the right ?
5 : Why do we say he has thick hair ?
6 : Why is it probable that the fat man is less than thirty years old ?

E1 : What is hanging between the two posts in this picture ?
2 : Of what substance is the wire made ?
3 : What sort of wire is it ?
4 : Which post is the man working at ?
5 : What is the man going to do with the wire in his hand ?
6 : What will the two ends of the wire be fixed to ?
7 : Where are the two boxes ?
8 : What is in one of the boxes ?
9 : What instruments are in the other box ?

F1 : Where do we see telegraph and telephone wires ?
2 : What are these wires used for ?
3 : What are electric wires used for ?
4 : How are electric wires different from telegraph or telephone wires ?

G1 : How were messages sent in the old days ?
2 : How are messages sent today ?
3 : Who was the first man to make a telegraph machine ?
4 : How are telegraph messages sent ?
5 : Who was the first man to make a telephone ?
6 : Why is a telephone better than a telegraph ?
7 : What is the third way of sending a message ?
8 : How is wireless different from the telephone or telegraph ?
9 : Who was the first man to send a wireless message ?

H1 : Is wire widely used in the Army ?
2 : What is it used for ?
3 : When is ' barbed wire ' put all round a place ?
4 : When is a balloon barrage used ?
5 : What are the balloons fixed to ?
6 : Where are the other ends of the wires fixed ?
7 : What make a balloon barrage ?

P1 : Which is thicker—this (book) or this book ?
S : Book : board, leather, glass, cloth.
2 : Which is thinner—this (pen) or this pen ?
S : Pen : pencil, book, stick.
3 : How thick is this (book) ?
S : Same as 1 or 2.
4 : That (dog) is not thin ; it is quite fat.
S: Dog : cat, horse, cow, bullock, sheep, goat.
5 : The (electric) wires were cut last night.
S : Electric : telegraph, telephone.
6 : The man is fixing the wiring for an electric (light).
S : Light : bell, fan.

M1 : Thick Mist

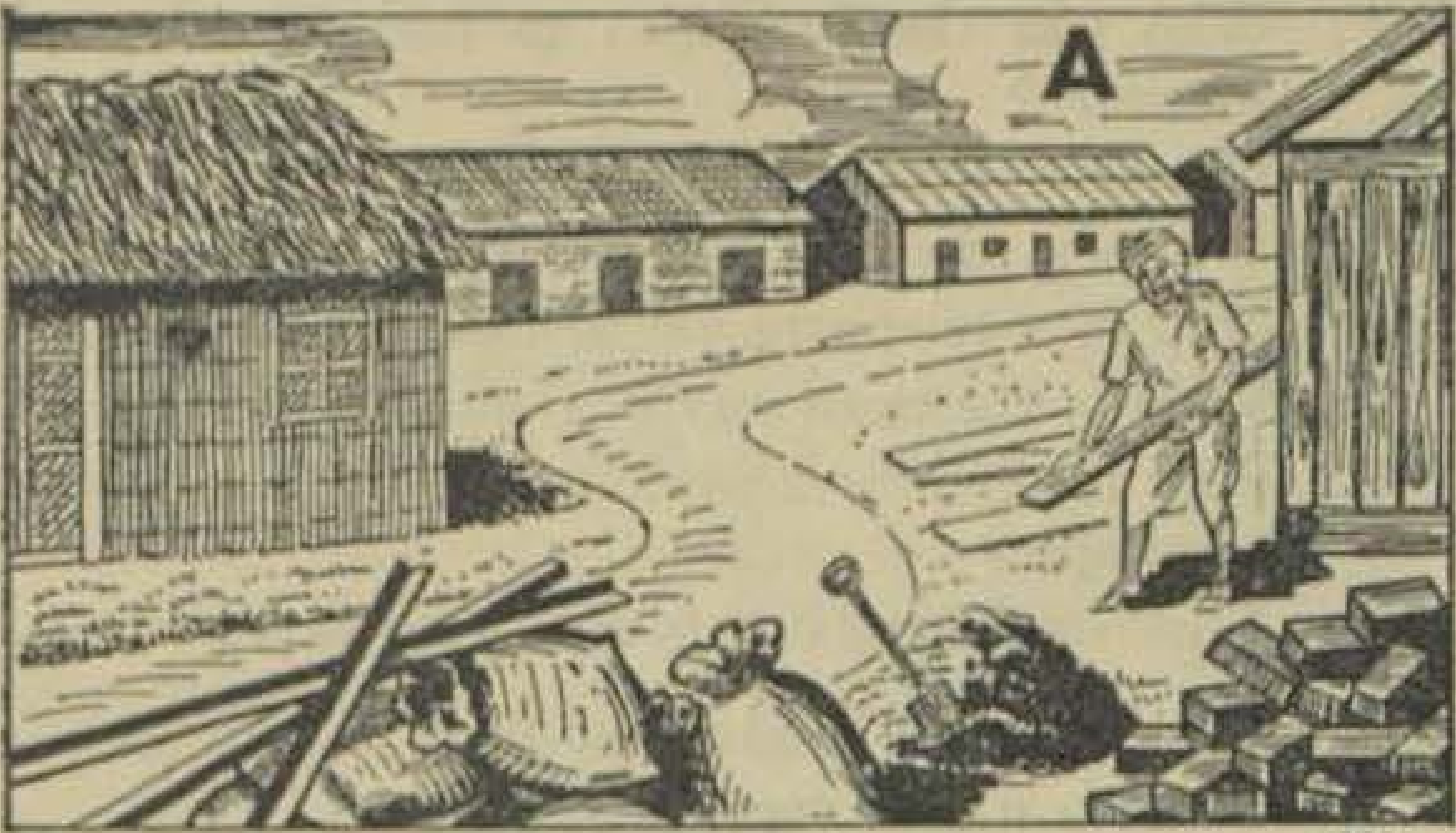
KHAN : Let's go for a walk.
KARIM : There is a mist over the road.
KHAN : You've been out in a mist before.
KARIM : Only when I've had to. The mist is so thick that you won't be able to see a yard in front of you. Walking in a thick mist isn't my idea of pleasure. Let's go when the weather is clear.

2 : The Clouds Are Thin

SITA : Get out your umbrella.
RAM [*about to go out*] : There won't be any rain today.
SITA : The sky is very clouded.
RAM : But those aren't rain clouds. Rain clouds are thick and black ; but those clouds are thin and white.

Unit 20: The Officer Is Our Guide

structure, material, guide



A. When war was started suddenly by Japan in the Pacific on December 7, 1941, Britain and America had to send a great number of troops to India. Not only were British and American troops needed, but the Indian Army had to be made stronger as well. So a great number of men were taken into the Indian Army and had to be trained for different sorts of work. It became necessary to put up barracks for the housing of troops, training camps for the training of troops, rest camps where troops might get rest when necessary, workshops and factories for the making of guns and ammunition, and depots and magazines for storing them. So the Army had to put up a great number of structures all over the country.

B. Some of these structures were made of wood; others were made of brick; still others were made of cement. Most of these structures had to be put up very quickly; there was not much time. So the Army had to make use of whatever material they were able to get for building these structures. Where it was possible to get wood, the material used for building the structures was wood. Where it was possible to get bricks the material used for building the structures was brick, and where it was possible to get cement the material used for building the structures was cement. In certain parts of Bengal, the only building material which it was possible to get was bamboo and cocoanut leaves, and so they put up structures made of bamboo and cocoanut leaves. These are the 'bashas' which are very common in certain parts of Bengal.

C. Wood, earth, brick, cement and steel—these are the chief materials used in building. They are all building materials. Bullets, bombs, hand-grenades, guns—these are the materials used in fighting a war. They are all war materials.

D. Some of the structures which the Army put up in wartime are of very poor quality. They will be of little or no use after the war. But there are a number of other structures, the quality of which is very good. They may now be used for schools or hospitals or reading-rooms or recreation rooms or village panchayats. They will be of the greatest use in post-war 'reconstruction programmes'.



E. Troops are in need not only of barracks, training camps, rest camps and hospitals, but they are sometimes in need of guides as well. To Indian troops who took part in the war in Italy, Italy was a strange country. So whenever Indian troops went from one place to another they had to take an Italian guide with them. It was the guide who took the Indians round the churches, gardens, farms and other interesting places in Italy. A guide says where we are to go, how we are to go and what interesting places there are to see, because he has a good knowledge of the country through which he is taking you.

F. A teacher is a sort of guide. When you are learning English your English teacher is your guide. When you are learning shooting your sergeant (or whoever is teaching you) is your guide. And when you are learning map-reading your N.C.O. (or whoever is teaching you) is your guide. Your teacher gives you help with your work, says what you are to do and how you are to do it, says what instruments you are to make use of and how. Your teacher has more knowledge than you have, and if you let yourself be guided by him you will become very good in English or shooting or map-reading or whatever it is which your teacher is teaching you.

G. When you are very young your father and mother are a sort of guide to you. They say what is right and what is wrong, what is wise and what is foolish, what is good for you and what is not good for you. It is wise to do as your father and mother say when you are young because if you do not it is possible you will get yourself into trouble. When you are in the Army away from home the man who takes the place of your father and mother is your officer. He is your friend and your guide. Whenever you are in trouble you may go to him for help, and you may be certain that he will be very happy to give you whatever help it is possible for him to give.

A1 : When was war suddenly started by Japan ?

2 : What did Britain and America have to do ?

3 : Why were a great number of men taken into the Indian Army ?

4 : What were these men trained to do ?

5 : What structures did the Army have to put up ?

6 : Why was it necessary to put up barracks (training camps, rest camps, workshops and factories, depots and magazines) ?

B1 : Of what materials were these structures made ?

2 : Why did the Army have to make use of whatever material they were able to get ?

3 : Sometimes the material used was wood (bricks, cement). Why ?

4 : Where were structures of bamboo and cocoanut leaves put up ?

5 : Why was it necessary to make use of these materials ?

C1 : Which are the chief building materials ?

2 : What are war materials ?

D1 : Which structures put up by the Army will be of no use after the war ?

2 : Which structures will be of use ?

3 : How may they be used ?

E1 : What are troops sometimes in need of ?

2 : Why did Indian troops in Italy have to take a guide round with them ?

3 : What did the guide take the Indians to see ?

4 : How is a guide a help in a strange country ?

5 : Why is he able to be of use to you ?

F1 : Who is your guide when you are learning English (shooting, map-reading) ?

2 : How is your teacher a guide to you ?

3 : Why is it wise to let yourself be guided by your teacher ?

G1 : How are your father and mother a sort of guide to you ?

2 : What do they do ?

3 : Why is it wise to let yourself be guided by them when you are young ?

4 : Who takes their place when you are in the Army ?

5 : How is your officer your friend and your guide ?

P1 : This (building) is a (stone) structure.

S : Building, stone : bridge, iron ; stage, structure of wood.

2 : We put up a structure made of (wood) in that place.

S : Wood : cement, stone, earth, bamboo.

3 : Give the name of a material which readily takes fire.

N : Wood, cloth, cotton, etc.

4 : What material is necessary for the making of cloth ?

S : Cloth : glass, shoes, socks, a rifle, wire, electric bulbs.

5 : A guide will be necessary if you are going round the (town).

S : Town : museum, factory, farm, countryside.

6 : This book is a good guide to English. It will be of great help in learning English.

S : English : Urdu, cooking, stitching, farming.

7 : The (Bhagawat Gita) is a guide to living.

S : Bhagawat Gita : Koran, Granth Sahib, Bible.

M1 : A Railway Guide

RAM [*at book-store at railway station*] : Have you a railway guide ?

STOREMAN : Here's a railway guide.

RAM [*taking book*] : Is this a complete guide to all the railways in India ?

STOREMAN : Yes, it is a complete guide to all the railways in India—what trains there are, what time they come in, how long the stops are, what time they go out and so on.

2 : We Took A Guide

OFFICER [*at camp, waiting*] : Why did you take such a long time to get to the camp ?

SEPOY : We had no map with us, sir.

OFFICER : What did you do then ?

SEPOY : We had to take a guide, sir.

3 : Material To Make Flowers With

RAM : Our room would be more beautiful if we had some flowers in a pot.

SITA : It is hard to get flowers. The flower girl does not come round every day.

RAM : If it is not possible to get flowers from plants why not make some paper flowers ?

SITA : But I haven't any material to make flowers with.

RAM : I'll get you all the material which is needed to make flowers with.

SITA : Then get me some coloured paper, some wire, some paste and a pair of scissors. That is all the material which is needed to make flowers with.

RAM : I'll get it when I come back from office today. Will you have red paper or green ?

SITA : I'll have red paper for the flowers and green paper for the leaves.

Unit 21 : Which Is Most Important ?

important, example



A. Men have five great needs : we have a need for air ; we have a need for food ; we have a need for drink ; we have a need for sleep ; and we have a need for rest from work. All these needs are important. Without air, food, water, sleep and rest it would not be possible for us to go on living for more than a short time. But these needs are not all equally important. The need for air is more important than the need for water. It is possible to go on living without water for days or even weeks, but without air it is not possible to go on living for more than two or three minutes. On the other hand the need for water is more important than the need for food ; the need for food is more important than the need for sleep ; and the need for sleep is more important than the need for rest. The need for air is the most important of our needs. The need for rest is the least important.

B. We do not have the same sort of food for every meal ; we have different sorts of food. Meat, fish, rice, bread, 'vegetables' are examples of different sorts of food. All these different sorts of food are important, but they are not all equally important. Grains are more important than meat, fish or vegetables. Grains are our most important food. Examples of grains are rice, wheat, *bajri*, and *jawar*. Not all these grains are equally important. In Europe wheat is more important than rice. In Asia rice is more important than wheat. In our country, India, different grains are important in different parts of the country. In the north wheat is more important than rice. In the south rice is more important than wheat.

C. There are over two hundred metals under the earth. To give examples there are iron, copper, silver, gold, lead, manganese, aluminium. All these are examples of metals. They are all important ; but they are not equally important. Iron is more important than any other metal because almost all instruments and machines are made with iron. Uranium is a metal which may become more and more important because it is needed for the making of atom bombs.

D. Hand-grenades, rifles, machine-guns, tanks and airplanes are all examples of war materials. Which of these are the most important ? Are tanks and airplanes more important than hand-grenades and rifles ?

E. The 'fighting forces' of a country are made up of its army, navy and air force. Which of these is the most important for victory ? They are all equally important. France went down before Germany because France had only a strong army, but Germany had a strong army and a strong air force. England was in great danger in the first year of the war because she had a strong navy but a very small army and air force. Japan was crushed by the United States probably because though Japan had a strong army and a strong navy the United States had a stronger air force. It is only when the army, the air force and the navy are acting together like one unit that it is possible for a country to get the better of its enemies. But it may be that in future wars air-force bombers dropping atom bombs will be more important for victory than an army or navy.

F. Soldiers have a number of duties. For example, they have to keep themselves healthy ; they have to keep their weapons clean ; they have to get a good knowledge of the use of their weapons ; they have to do as they are ordered. These are all examples of the duties of a soldier. These duties are all very important but there is little doubt that the duty which is put down last—the duty of 'obedience'—is the one which is most important. Every soldier has to do as he is ordered.

A1 : What are the five great needs of men ?
2 : Why are these five things so important ?
3 : Which is more important—the need for air or the need for water ?
4 : Why is the need for air more important than the need for water ?
5 : Which is more important, the need for water or for food (for food or for sleep ; for sleep or for rest) ?
6 : Which is the most important need of all ?
7 : Which is the least important ?

B1 : Give examples of different sorts of food.
2 : Are all these foods equally important ?
3 : Which is more important, grains or meat (fish, vegetables) ?
4 : Which is our most important food ?
5 : Give some examples of different grains.
6 : Which grain is more important in Europe, wheat or rice ?
7 : Which grain is more important in Asia, wheat or rice ?
8 : Where in India is wheat more important than rice (rice more important than wheat) ?

C1 : What is the number of metals under the earth ?
2 : Give some examples of different metals.
3 : Are all metals equally important ?

4: Which is the most important metal ?

5: Why is it more important than any other metal ?

6: Why may the metal uranium become more and more important ?

D1: Give some examples of war materials.

2: Which of these are the most important ?

3: Are tanks and airplanes more important than hand-grenades and rifles ?

E1: What are the fighting forces of a country made up of ?

2: Which is the most important for victory ?

3: Was France overcome by Germany because her army was smaller ?

4: England was in great danger in the first year of war. Was that because her navy was not strong enough ?

5: Why was Japan crushed by the United States ?

6: Is it of any use to have an army, navy and air force all working by themselves ?

7: What in the future may be more important than an army and navy ?

F1: What are the four chief duties of a soldier ?

2: Which is his most important duty ?

P1: Which is the most important part of a (car) ?

S: Car: lorry, bus, airplane, railway train.

2: Who is the most important person in an (army) ?

S: Army: factory, mill, school.

3: Why are (eyes) important to a man ?

S: Eyes: hands, legs, a tongue.

4: Why is a (doctor) an important person in a village ?

S: Doctor: headman, chowkidar, etc.

5: Give me an example of a (drink).

S: Drink: fruit, machine, an animal with horns, an animal without horns, solid, liquid, gas, a cruel act, a kind act.

6: I do (wood-work). This (table) which I have made is an example of my work.

S: Wood-work, table; leather-work, shoe; basket-work, basket.

7: There are different forms of transport. For example, there is transport by (bus).

S: Bus: railway, air, sea.

8: This is one of the best co-operative societies in the province. It is an example to all the other co-operative societies.

S: Co-operative societies: clubs, recreation centres, panchayats, etc.

9: I will take such good care of my (house) that it will be an example to all my brother villagers.

S: House: garden, farm.

Seat-work (Units 17-21)

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces:* harbour, ship, canvas, hollow, substance, solid, liquid, quality, thick, thin, fat, wire, structure, material, guide, important, example.

1. Electric current goes from one point to another through a..........
2. What are the different..........which are used in making cement ?
3. A dog is true to its owner. This is one of the ....of a dog.
4. A..........is sometimes changed into a ....when it is heated.
5. ....shoes are not as strong as leather shoes.
6. Learning shooting is a very..........part of a recruit's work.
7. When you are fighting in a country which is new to you a..........will be necessary to take you from one place to another.
8. Rubber is a soft..........
9. Across the river they had put up a.......... made of wood.
10. Blood is..........than water
11. A thick wire is stronger than a..........wire.
12. If you have more ghee than is necessary you will get..........
13. A cow is an..........of a farm animal.
14. If you go down to the sea-front you may see ships in the..........
15. A rubber balloon is..........because there is space inside it.

B. *Put the right word in the spaces:*

1. These hats are not..........a high quality.
2. There is much fat..........the man's body.
3. He is putting..........wires for an electric light.
4. When I was young my brother was a good guide ....me.
5. Give me an example..........a mountain animal.
6. His farm is an example..........others in the village.

C. *Give answers to these questions:*

1. What sort of ships are most common these days ?

....

2. How is canvas different from cotton ?

....

3. Give an example of two different things which are made of the same substance.

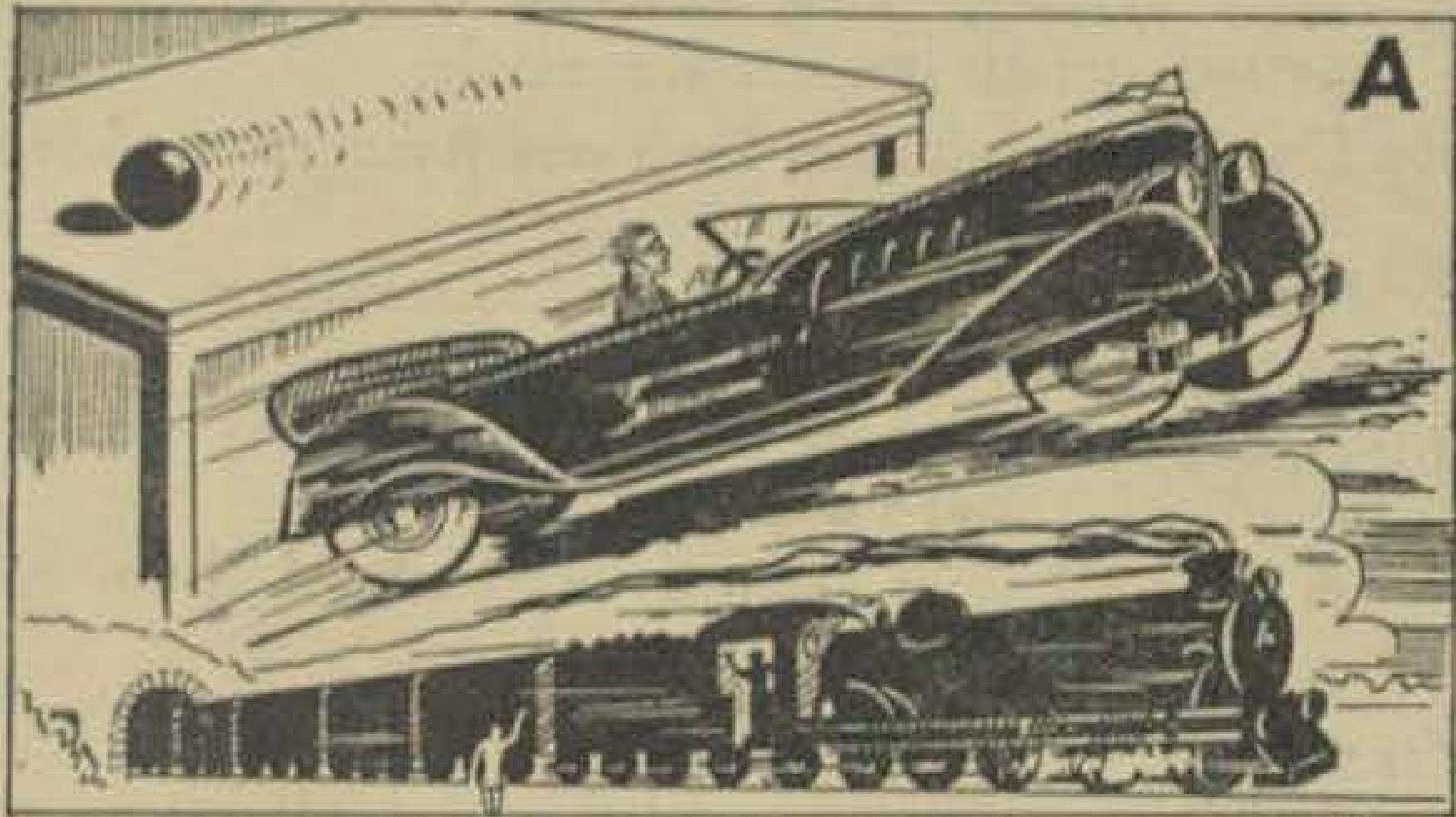
....

4. Sometimes the same substance may have three different forms—solid, liquid and gas. Give an example.

....

Unit 22: The Motions of The Earth

motion, grip, rail, ring



A. When a ball is moving from one end of a table to the other we say the ball is in motion. When a taxi-driver is driving his taxi on a road we say the taxi is in motion. When a train is running between two stations we say the train is in motion. When a ship is sailing on the sea we say the ship is in motion. How do we put a ball which is on a table in motion? By giving the ball a push. How do we put a motor car in motion? By putting the 'gear' in position and pushing down the 'accelerator'. How do we make the car come to a stop? By putting on the brake. How do we put a railway engine in motion? By turning on the steam. How do we make the railway engine come to a stop? By turning off the steam. How do we put a ship in motion? There are a number of ways. One is by the use of steam. Another is by the use of an electric current.

B. Have you ever been on a ship? If the weather is good and the sea is smooth a journey on a ship is a pleasure. If the weather is bad and the waves are high we become 'sea-sick'. The ship keeps rolling from side to side. It is the motion of the ship from side to side which makes us sea-sick. What is the cause of the side-to-side motion of the ship? The side-to-side motion of the ship is caused by the waves.



C. When a ship is rolling from side to side it is hard to keep upright or to get from one part of the ship to another. All the time you are walking there is need for some support or other. Sometimes, when the ship is suddenly lifted high by the waves, you have to get a grip on something to keep yourself from falling. In the picture there are a number of persons gripping the rails which go all round the ship. The rails are part of an iron structure which is put all round the ship to keep persons from falling into the sea. One man is gripping the rail with his right hand. Another man is gripping the rail with his left hand. A third man is gripping the rail with his two hands. A fourth man is gripping an iron ring which is fixed to one of the walls. A fifth man is gripping an iron rod which is supporting the higher part of the ship. They are all gripping something or other to keep themselves from falling.

D. But sailors are different. They never get sea-sick. They do not have to get a grip on something or other to keep upright. They are able to go about without support even in the worst possible weather, when the ship is rolling from side to side or from end to end. One way of saying this is that sailors have good 'sea-legs'.

E. Waves may be caused by the wind. But some persons say that waves are caused by the motion of the earth. We have seen that the earth is like a great ball with water covering about three-fourths of it. Now the earth is not fixed in space but is going round and round all the time. The earth has two sorts of motion. Every twenty-four hours it makes a complete turn, like a ball with a rod through the middle when it is pushed with the finger. And all the time it has been going round and round like a ball it has been going forward, till at the end of the year it has gone completely round the sun.

F. The two motions of the earth are equally important. The motion of the earth round the sun is the cause of summer and winter. Its other motion is the cause of day and night.

A1: When do we say a ball is in motion?
2: When do we say a taxi is in motion?
3: What do we say of a train running between two stations?
4: When is a ship in motion?
5: How do we put a ball on a table in motion?
6: How do we put a motor car in motion?
7: How do we make it come to a stop?
8: How do we put a railway engine in motion?
9: How do we make it come to a stop?
10: How do we put a ship in motion?

B1: When is a journey on a ship a pleasure?
2: When do we become sea-sick on a ship?
3: What does the ship keep doing when the weather is bad?
4: What is it which makes us sea-sick?
5: What is the cause of the side-to-side motion of the ship?

C1: When is it hard to keep upright on a ship?

2: Why is it hard to get from one part of a ship to another when it is rolling ?
3: What do you have to do to keep yourself from falling ?
4: What are the persons in the picture doing ?
5: Why are rails put all round the ship ?
6: What are three of the men gripping the rail with ?
7: What is the fourth man gripping ?
8: What is the use of the iron rod which the fifth man is gripping ?
9: Why are they all gripping something or other ?

D1: How are sailors different from you and me ?
2: What are they able to do even in the worst weather ?
3: What is another way of saying that sailors never get sea-sick ?

E1: What may be the cause of waves ?
2: How do others say waves are caused ?
3: What is the earth like ?
4: Is the earth fixed in space ?
5: The earth has two sorts of motion. What are they ?
6: How long does it take the earth to go completely round the sun ?

F1: Which of the two motions of the earth is the more important ?
2: Which motion of the earth is the cause of summer and winter (day and night) ?

P1: He got out of the (car) while it was in motion. His right leg was badly damaged.
S: Car: taxi, lorry, truck, jeep, train, bus, tram.
2: I am putting a (tennis ball) in motion.
S: Tennis ball: football, etc.
3: What am I gripping ?
N: Pencil, pen, stick, rifle, foot-rule.
4: Get a grip of (my arm) to keep from falling.
S: My arm: the door, rails.
5: This is how a (hockey-stick) is gripped.
S: Hockey-stick: cricket bat, tennis racquet, hammer, spade, air pump.
6: The hand-part of a (hammer) is its grip.
S: Hammer: spade, tennis racquet, cricket bat.
7: Some rings are made of (gold).
S: Gold: silver, iron.

M1: **The Motion of A Hand**

TEACHER: What makes waves in a flag ?
LEARNER: The wind or the motion of your hand.

2: **When The Bus Is In Motion**

GOPAL: I'm going to the park, mother.
SITA: Are you going on foot or are you going by bus ?
GOPAL: I'm going by bus.
SITA: Don't get into the bus while it is in motion.
GOPAL: No, mother. I never get into the bus while it is in motion. I get into the bus after it has come to a stop.
SITA: And don't get off the bus while it's in motion.
GOPAL: No, mother. I never get off the bus while it is in motion. I get off the bus only after it has come to a stop.

3: **In Mohan's Grip**

PARTAB: Poor Amar Nath ! He had the worst of the fight yesterday.
SUSHIL: Why, what took place ?
PARTAB: Mohan and Amar Nath came to blows. In a minute Amar Nath was completely in Mohan's grip. Mohan had his arms tightly round Amar Nath's body and Amar Nath was unable to get free. Then a number of us went to Amar Nath's help and got him free from Mohan's grip.

4: **In the Grip of the Current**

BATHER: Help ! Help !
KHAN [*bathing near by*]: Someone seems to be in danger. Let us go and give him help. [*After getting bather on to the sands*]: Are you all right ?
BATHER: Yes, thank you. I went a little farther out today and got into the grip of a current. If you hadn't come to my help I would have gone down. Thank you so much.

5: **In the Grip of Cholera**

DOCTOR: I have been ordered to go to camp 1469 at once.
FRIEND: Why, what's wrong ?
DOCTOR: The camp is in the grip of cholera. A great number of persons are ill with cholera. I am going tomorrow.

6: **A Gripping Story**

PREM: Where are you going ?
FRIEND: I'm going to the library to give this book back.
PREM: Is the book interesting ?
FRIEND: Very ! I was completely gripped by the story. I wasn't able to put the book down till I had got to the end of it. It is a very gripping story.
PREM: May I have it for a day ?
FRIEND: Certainly !

Unit 23 : In A Canteen

advertisement, cheap, dear



A. Gopal got through his matriculation examination last week. Now he is looking out for work. Gopal's father and mother are not very well-off. Gopal has a number of brothers and sisters who are still at school. He has to give his father help in supporting the family. It is necessary for him to get work quickly. Gopal is reading a newspaper. In a newspaper there are news and advertisements. Every page of a newspaper has some advertisement or other, but some newspapers put most of their advertisements on the first or the second or the last page. In the newspaper which Gopal is reading most of the advertisements are on the last page.

B. Gopal is going through every advertisement with great attention. The first is an Army advertisement. It has been put in by the Army. The advertisement says, "Clerks are needed in the Army. They will be given good pay. A clerk who has a matriculation certificate will be given Rs. 75 a month." A second advertisement which has been put in by the Army says, "Typists are needed in the Army. The pay is very good. A very good typist may be started on Rs. 200." There are a great number of such advertisements in the newspapers—advertisements for posts in the Army, advertisements for posts in the Navy and advertisements for posts in the Air Force. After reading all the advertisements Gopal will send an answer to the advertisement which seems to him to be the best.

C. Most of the advertisements in a newspaper, however, are not for positions but for goods. Almost every producer of goods puts in advertisements. The newspapers are full of advertisements of cotton goods, silk goods, leather goods, rubber goods, and dresses, soaps and oils. And everyone who puts in an advertisement seems to be certain that the quality of his goods is the best. We see advertisements not only in newspapers. We see them on the roads, at the cinema, in railway stations, and in post-offices, sometimes pasted on the walls or fixed to bamboo structures.

D. One of the commonest things which any advertisement says is, "Our goods are the best and the cheapest on the market." We say something is cheap when it is possible to get a great amount of it for a small amount of money. For example, if it is possible to get fifteen cigarettes for three annas we say the cigarettes are cheap, and if it is possible to get fifteen cigarettes for one anna we say the cigarettes are very cheap. In the same way we say something is dear when we have to give a great amount of money for a small amount of it. For example, if we have to give four annas for four cigarettes we say the cigarettes are dear. And if we have to give four annas for two cigarettes we say the cigarettes are very dear.

E. In peace-time most things are cheap. In war-time things get very dear. Before the war things like wheat, rice, sugar and kerosene oil were all very cheap. Then as the war went on the prices of these things went up and up ; they became dearer and dearer. The war has come to an end now. But prices are still high and things are very dear. But they are not as dear as they were before the end of the war. And as the days go by it is possible that prices will become lower and lower and things will get cheaper and cheaper.

F. Even in time of war men in uniform get their things very cheaply, in a canteen. The prices of things in a canteen are sometimes less than half the prices in the market. Not only are things cheaper in a canteen, but their quality is better as well. If ever you are in need of something or other make certain that you go to a canteen, for in a canteen you will probably be able to get what you are in need of more cheaply.

G. We have said that when the price of something is very high it is very dear. The word *dear* has another sense. We say that any person for whom we have a great feeling is *dear* to us. Our father and mother are dear to us. Our boys and girls are dear to us. Our friends are dear to us. When we are writing a letter this is how we make a start : My dear father, or My dear friend, or My dear Gopal.

A1 : When did Gopal get through his matriculation ?
2 : What is he doing now ?
3 : Why is it necessary for him to get work quickly ?
4 : What are there in every newspaper ?
5 : What does every page of a newspaper have ?
6 : Where do some newspapers put most of their advertisements ?
7 : Where are most of the advertisements in the newspaper Gopal is reading ?

B1 : What is Gopal doing ?
2 : What is the first advertisement ?
3 : What does the advertisement say ?
4 : What sort of pay will be given ?
5 : What does the second advertisement say ?
6 : What pay does it say a good typist will be started on ?

7: For what different posts have advertisements been put in?

8: What will Gopal do after reading all the advertisements?

C1: What are most of the advertisements in a newspaper for?

2: What sort of persons put advertisements in?

3: What sort of advertisements are the newspapers full of?

4: What does everyone who puts in an advertisement seem to be certain of?

5: We do not see advertisements only in newspapers. In what other places do we see them?

D1: What is one of the commonest things any advertisement says about its goods?

2: When do we say a thing is cheap?

3: When would we say cigarettes are cheap (very cheap)?

4: When do we say something is dear?

5: When would we say cigarettes are dear (very dear)?

E1: When are most things cheap?

2: When do they get very dear?

3: What sort of things were very cheap before the war?

4: When did these things become dearer and dearer?

5: Are things cheap now that the war has come to an end?

6: Are they as dear as they were before the end of the war?

7: Will they get dearer?

F1: Where do men in uniform get things cheaply in war-time?

2: How are prices in a canteen different from those in the market?

3: What about the quality of things in a canteen?

4: Why is it a good thing to go to a canteen when you are in need of something?

G1: What is one sense of the word *dear*?

2: What do we say of any person for whom we have a great feeling?

3: Who is dear to us?

4: How do we make a start when we are writing a letter?

P1: Here is an advertisement for (coats).

S: Coats: shirts, trousers, shoes, boots, socks, stockings, collars, hats, saris, dhotis, caps, etc., umbrellas, etc.

2: Our office is in need of a (clerk). We have put an advertisement for the post in one of the newspapers.

S: Clerk: typist, peon, watchman, telephone girl.

3: I am answering an advertisement for the post of a (stenographer) in the Army.

S: Stenographer: medical orderly, office superintendent, canteen bearer, motor driver, etc.

4: This (pot) is very cheap. Its price is only (eight) annas.

S: Pot: plate, bottle, basin, glass, cup, kettle, bucket, bag, box.

5: (Twenty) rupees for this (seat)! Isn't the seat very dear?

S: Seat: table, shelf, cupboard, picture-frame, curtain-rod, hammer, spade, etc.

6: I get my pencils from the canteen. (Pencils) are cheaper at the canteen than at a store.

S: Pencils: books, blades, knives, soap, polish, etc.

M: **At The Store**

RAM [*at store*]: Have you any pens?

STOREMAN: Yes, sir. Here are some pens—the best and the cheapest on the market.

RAM: What's the price?

STOREMAN: Twenty rupees.

RAM: Twenty rupees for a pen! And you say it's cheap.

STOREMAN: But the prices of things have been going up. Today everything is dearer than it was last week. A week from today things will be dearer still.

RAM: No, thank you. I won't take it for twenty rupees.

STOREMAN: It is one of the best and the cheapest pens on the market. You would be wise to get one now. It is a very good pen for the price, sir. If it is dropped on the floor it won't get broken. If it is put near a flame it won't get burned.

RAM: All right, I'll take it . . .

STOREMAN [*While Ram is going out*]: I've some very beautiful ear-rings, sir. The best and cheapest on the market. Only two hundred rupees, sir.

RAM: Two hundred rupees!

STOREMAN: They are very cheap for two hundred rupees . . . [*In a low voice*]: They will make a good present for your girl friend, sir.

RAM [*going out*]: Girl friend? I'm a married man!

N: Present: Translate (offering).

Unit 24 : Exchange of Men and Goods

business, profit, loss, trade, exchange



24

A. The business of a farmer is farming. The business of a teacher is teaching. The business of a cook is cooking. The business of a taxi-driver is driving a taxi.

B. Men in the Army have different sorts of business. The business of a scout is to get news about the enemy. The business of a sapper is the building of roads and bridges. The business of signallers is sending messages. The business of doctors is taking care of persons who are ill or wounded, and the business of soldiers is fighting.

C. The word business has another sense. We sometimes say of a man that he does business or that he is a businessman. The sense of this would probably be that he is the owner of a cloth-works or a coal-mine, a bank, an insurance company, a store or something like that.

D. A man goes into business to make money for himself. Before starting a business a man has to put money into it. It is not possible to do business without a little money. If you get more money out of your business than you put into it you make a profit. For example if you put one hundred rupees into your business and get one hundred and fifty rupees out of it you make a profit of fifty rupees. Sometimes it is not possible to make a profit. Then there will be a loss. For example, if you put one hundred rupees into your business and get only fifty rupees out of it there is a loss of fifty rupees. If you are a good businessman you will probably make a good profit. But if you are a bad businessman there will probably be a loss. The better the businessman the higher the profit. The worse the businessman the greater the loss. If the loss is very great you may have to go out of business. We then say that your business has gone smash.



24

E. This man has a store in which he keeps electrical goods. He does business or trade in electrical goods. Another way of saying this is that he is in the electrical trade, or that he is a trader in electrical goods. In almost every town we have different sorts of traders. We have traders in leather goods, traders in cotton goods, traders in silk goods and traders in rubber goods. Then there are men who do trade in rice, men who do trade in sugar and men who do trade in kerosene oil. Then again there are men who are in the iron trade, men who are in the coal trade, men who are in the milk trade and men who are in the book trade.

F. If Lal sends goods to Mal and Mal sends goods to Pal we say there is trade between Lal and Pal and Mal. There may be trade not only between two or more persons but between two or more 'provinces' as well. For example, there is trade between Bombay Province and the Punjab Province ; between Madras Province and Bombay Province ; between Orissa Province and Bihar Province. Again there may be trade not only between two provinces in the same country but between two different countries as well. For example, there is trade between India and Burma ; there is trade between India and England ; there is trade between India and America. There is some trade between every country and every other country on earth.

G. If Bombay sends cloth to the Punjab and gets wheat from the Punjab we say that there is an exchange of goods between Bombay and the Punjab. Bombay sends cloth to the Punjab and gets wheat in exchange for its cloth. The Punjab sends wheat to Bombay and gets cloth in exchange for its wheat. There is an exchange of cloth for wheat and of wheat for cloth between Bombay and the Punjab.

H. We have seen there is trade not only between provinces of the same country but between different countries as well. This is only another way of saying that an exchange of goods is taking place all the time between countries. For example, we send cloth, sugar and leather to Burma and in exchange get rice, oil and wood from Burma. Our cloth, sugar and leather are exchanged for Burma rice, oil and wood. To give another example, we send cotton, gunny and tea to England. In exchange we get cloth, paper and

machinery from England. Our cotton, gunny and tea are exchanged for English cloth, paper and machinery.

I. In times of war a different sort of exchange sometimes takes place between two countries which are at war with one another. There may, for example, be an exchange of prisoners or of other important persons. Let us say there is war between England, Russia and America on the one side and Italy, Germany and Japan on the other. There may then be an exchange of war prisoners between any two of these countries. For example, one hundred British prisoners may be exchanged for one hundred Italian prisoners, or fifty Russian prisoners may be exchanged for fifty German prisoners, or twenty-five American prisoners may be exchanged for twenty-five Japanese prisoners.

A: What is the business of a farmer (a teacher, a cook, a taxi-driver)?

B: What is the business of a scout in the Army (a sapper, a signaller, a doctor, a soldier)?

C: When do we say a man is a businessman?

D1: Why does a man go into business?

2: What has the man to put into the business when starting it?

3: Is it possible to do business without a little money?

4: When do you make a profit?

5: What is the profit if you put Rs. 100 into a business and get Rs. 150 out of it?

6: What will there be if you don't make a profit?

7: What is the loss if you put Rs. 100 into your business and get only Rs. 50 out of it?

8: What will you probably get from your business if you are a good businessman (bad businessman)?

9: What may you have to do if the loss in your business is very great?

10: What do we say of your business then?

E1: What sort of goods does this man keep in his store?

2: What sort of goods does he do a trade in?

3: What is another way of saying this?

4: What different sorts of traders are there in almost every town?

5: What are some of the other things men do trade in?

6: What other different sorts of trade are there?

F1: When do we say there is trade between Lal and Pal and Mal?

2: Give examples of provinces (countries) between which there is trade?

G1: Bombay sends cloth to the Punjab and gets wheat from the Punjab. What is there between Bombay and the Punjab?

2: What does Bombay get in exchange for the cloth it sends to the Punjab?

3: What does the Punjab get in exchange for the wheat it sends to Bombay?

4: What is there an exchange of between Bombay and the Punjab?

H1: What is another way of saying that there is trade between two countries?

2: What do we get in exchange for the cloth, sugar and leather we send to Burma?

3: What does Burma get in exchange for its rice, oil and wood?

4: What are our cloth, sugar and leather exchanged for?

5: What are Burma's rice, oil and wood exchanged for?

6: What do we send to England?

7: What do we get in exchange for cotton, gunny and tea?

8: What are our cotton, gunny and tea exchanged for?

9: What are English cloth, paper and machinery exchanged for?

I1: What sort of exchange sometimes takes place between two countries which are at war with one another?

2: If there is war between England and Italy (Russia and Germany, America and Japan) what may English (Russian, American) prisoners be exchanged for?

P1: What's the business of a (clothmaker)?

S: Clothmaker: basket-maker, woodworker, gardener, fisherman, postman, fireman, supply corps, intelligence corps, artillery, etc.

2: My friend does business in (sports) goods.

S: Sports: rubber, leather, electrical, etc.

3: If I put (fifty) rupees into my business and get (one hundred) rupees what will be my profit?

S: Fifty, one hundred: any other number.

4: If I put (one hundred) rupees into my business and get (fifty) rupees out of it will there be a profit or a loss?

S: One hundred, fifty: any other number.

5: If I put (twenty) rupees into my business and get (ten) rupees out of it what will be the loss?

S: Twenty, ten: any other numbers.

6: My friend is a trader. He does trade in (food grains).

S: Food grains: medicines, rubber goods, etc.

7: His father is in the silk (trade).

S: Silk: wool, cotton, book, iron.

8: I will give you a (pen) in exchange for your (watch).

S: Pen, watch: watch, ring; ring, pen; pencil, rubber; whistle, bag; etc.

Unit 25 : Lal's Store

hook, drawer, polish, linen, glove, payment



A. Lal is in front of his store. He is a very good businessman. Every year he makes a great amount of profit. Do you see the rings on his fingers ? It is a sign that he is very well-off. The things which he keeps in his store are the best and the cheapest in the market, but the best advertisement for his goods is the smile on his face. He never gets angry ; he never says an unkind word. Those who come to get things from his store sometimes give him trouble, but he keeps smiling all the time. Lal's left hand is gripping a rod which is supporting the roof of his store. In his right hand there is a newspaper which he is reading. He is not interested in the news. He is reading only the advertisements.

B. From the roof of the store in front three hooks are hanging. The hooks, which are made of iron, are fixed to the roof. Hooks are used for hanging things from. An advertisement is hanging from the hook on the left. An umbrella is hanging from the hook in the middle and two bags are hanging from the hook on the right. Hooks are used not only for hanging things from but for getting fish as well. This is a different sort of hook. The hook and a bit of food are fixed to one end of the cord, which is let down under the water. The fish, looking for food, come and give the bit of food on the hook a bite, and get their mouths fixed to the hook. The line, with the fish at the end of it, is then pulled out of the water. That is how fishing is done.

C. Lal is in the store now. The table at which he does his work is on the right. The table has three drawers, one under the other. The top drawer is open ; the other two drawers are shut. In the top drawer Lal keeps his books, in the middle drawer he keeps his money and in the lowest drawer he keeps some polish, some wire and instruments. Whenever he goes out he keeps the drawers locked ; he never keeps them open. And when he goes home at the end of the day he takes care to see that all the three drawers are locked.

D. Lal takes very good care of his store. It is kept clean and bright at all times. When he comes in the morning he first gets the dust off the tables, boxes and other things in the store. Then he makes his table and seat clean and bright with a bit of cloth. He gets a good polish on them. For polishing the floor he makes use of the polish which is in the lowest drawer of his writing table.

E. On another table we see some linen and a glove. Linen is a sort of cloth like cotton but it is stronger and smoother than cotton. As a rule linen is dearer than cotton. We put gloves on our hands when the weather is very cold. A right-hand glove and a left-hand glove make a pair. Gloves may be made of cotton or wool or leather. The glove which is on the table in Lal's store is made of wool.

F. The money which we give a storeman for the goods we get from him is a payment for the goods. Every time we get goods from a store we make the storeman a payment for his goods. The money which we give a tailor for making a coat or a shirt is a payment for making the coat or shirt. The money which we give a barber for cutting our hair is a payment for cutting our hair. The pay which a sepoy gets at the end of every month is payment for the work which the sepoy does for the Army. The pay which an N.C.O. gets at the end of every month is payment for the work which the N.C.O. does for the Army. The pay of an N.C.O. is higher than the pay of a sepoy because the work of an N.C.O. is more important than the work of a sepoy.

A1 : Where is Lal ?
2 : What sort of businessman is he ?
3 : Why do you say he is a good businessman ?
4 : What are the rings on his fingers a sign of ?
5 : Why is he able to do good business with his goods ?
6 : What is his best advertisement ?
7 : Why do the same men and women keep coming to his store for goods ?
8 : What does he do if they give him trouble ?
9 : Where is Lal's hand ?
10 : What is the rod for ?
11 : What is in his right hand ?
12 : What is he doing with the newspaper ?
13 : Why is he reading only the advertisements ?

B1 : What are hanging from the roof of the store ?
2 : What are they made of ?
3 : What are the hooks fixed to ?
4 : What are hooks used for ?
5 : What is hanging from the hook on the left (in the middle, on the right) ?
6 : What other thing are hooks used for ?
7 : How is a hook used for getting fish ?
8 : How does the fish get fixed to the hook ?
9 : When is the line pulled out of the water ?

C1 : Where is Lal now ?
2 : Where is the table at which he does his work ?
3 : What is the number of drawers in the table ?
4 : How are the three drawers placed ?
5 : Which drawer is open ?
6 : Where does Lal keep his books ?
7 : What does he keep in the middle drawer ?
8 : What does he keep in the lowest drawer ?
9 : What does he do to the drawers whenever he goes out ?
10 : What does he do before going home at the end of the day ?

D1 : Why is Lal's store clean and bright at all times ?
2 : What does he do first when he gets to the store in the morning ?
3 : What does he do to his table and seat ?
4 : Where does he keep the polish for polishing the floor ?

E1 : What do we see on another table ?
2 : What is linen ?
3 : How is linen different from cotton ?
4 : Which is dearer, linen or cotton ?
5 : When do we put gloves on our hands ?
6 : What are gloves made of ?
7 : What is the glove on Lal's table made of ?

F1 : What is a payment ?
2 : When do we make a payment to a tailor (barber) ?
3 : What name do we give the payment which a sepoy (N.C.O.) gets for his work for the Army ?
4 : Why is the pay of an N.C.O. higher than the pay of a sepoy ?

P1 : Give my (table) a polish.
S : Table : seat, bag, shoes, boots, belt, buttons, rifle, etc.
2 : I am polishing the (window).
S : Window : door, table, seat, shelf, cupboard.
3 : The (floor) (is) polished.
S : Floor : windows, doors, tables, seats.
4 : This is payment for the (book) which I got from you yesterday.
S : Book : stick, pen, watch, ring, wire, canvas.
5 : He hasn't made payment for the (gold chain) which he got from me last week.
S : Gold chain : cord, whistle, comb, medicines, soap.

Seatwork

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :*

motion, grip, rail, ring, advertisement, cheap, dear, business, profit, loss, trade, exchange, payment, hook, drawer, polish.

1. The..........................of an airplane may make one air-sick.
2. If we get a great amount of rice for a small amount of money we say the rice is..........................
3. As a rule things get very..........................in time of war.
4. I saw from your..........................in the papers that your brushes are very cheap.
5. A light was hanging from a..........................in the wall.
6. A son is very..........................to his mother.
7. A learner's..........................is learning.
8. The book is in one of the..........................of my table.
9. ....is used for making things bright.
10. That is the best boot..........................in the market.
11. If I give you my stick and get your stick from you we will be making an..........................of our sticks.
12. He is a good businessman ; he made much.......................... last year.
13. There was such a great..........................that the man had to go out of business.
14. The money which I give a storeman for his goods is a..........................for the goods which I am getting.

B. *Put the right word in the spaces :*

1. We..........................the engine..........................motion by turning the handle.
2. ....a good grip of his arm.
3. The poor farmer was completely..........................the grip of the bania.
4. The Air Force has put an..........................in the paper for the post of photographer.
5. Here is an advertisement..........................the post of a clerk.
6. A daughter is very dear..........................her father.
7. He..........................business..........................medicines.
8. If you are a good businessman you will be able to..........................much profit.
9. My brother..........................trade..........................kerosene oil.
10. There was an exchange..........................blows between the two men.
11. What are you going to get..........................exchange ....your rice ?
12. I haven't..........................payment for the goods.
13. ....the floor a good polish.

C. *Put these statements differently, without changing their sense, by using the words in brackets :*

1. He does business. (businessman)
....
2. He made much money out of his business. (profit)
....
3. I am a trader in silk goods. (trade)
....
4. The table is very bright. (polish)
....

Unit 26 : Special Markets

market, general, special



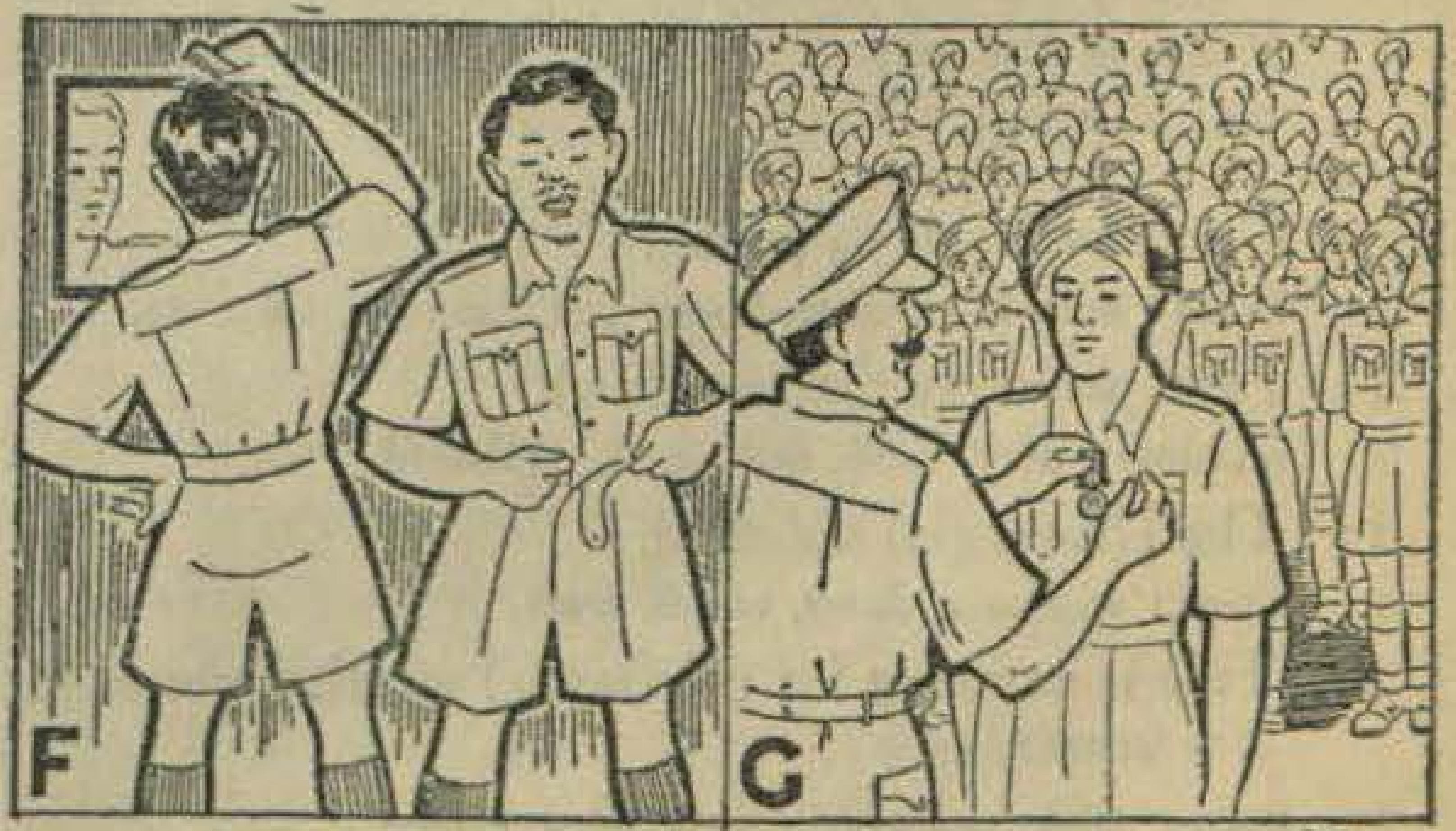
A. That part of the town in which business or trading is done is the market. Every town has a market in which goods are given and got in exchange for money. A village, however, has no market ; it has only market days. That is to say, on one day in the week everyone from the country round who has anything to give in exchange for money takes his goods to the village market-place. Farmers take their farm produce—rice or wheat or vegetables or whatever it may be ; milkmen take their milk or butter or ghee ; shoe-makers take their boots or shoes or sandals ; fishermen take their fish. They all come together at the market-place on market day and give their things in exchange for money. Generally money is given for goods. But sometimes one sort of goods may be exchanged for another sort. In some places some sort of goods or produce may be very much in request and then it is possible to get a good price for it. We then say that these goods or this produce has a good market in that place. For example, in some place tomatoes may be very much in request, and it is possible to get a good price for them. We then say that there is a good market for tomatoes in that place. In other places tomatoes may not be in request, and it may not be possible to get a good price for them. We then say that there is no market for tomatoes in that place.

B. Take a good look at the picture of a market. All sorts of traders have their stores here. It is full of men and women, and of noise and dust. A market-place in Europe is different from a market-place in India in two ways. In Europe the prices of most things in a market-place are fixed. There will be no argument about the price. But in India we do not have fixed prices. And arguments about prices are very common. Secondly, in Europe it is mostly women who go to the market. But in India it is the men who go to the market, though in the great towns of India today men and women sometimes go to the market together. In the market in the picture there are more men than women. Some of them are talking to the tradesmen ; others are having an argument about prices ; still others are exchanging news. A market is not only a place for exchanging goods but a place for exchanging news as well.

C. Some towns have not one but a number of markets. There is a general market in which different sorts of things may be got, and there are special markets in which only one sort of thing may be got. At the market in the picture one may get rice or wheat ; cotton, wool or linen ; milk, butter or ghee ; shoes, boots or sandals ; pens, pencils or books ; vegetables, fruit, flowers or fish. It is a general market. But in this town there are a number of special markets. There is a special market for vegetables, in which only vegetables may be got ; it is a vegetable market. There is a special market for fruit, in which only fruit may be got ; it is a fruit market. There is a special market for cloth, in which only cloth may be got ; it is a cloth market. There is a special market for fish, in which only fish may be got ; it is a fish market. There are other special markets as well—a special market for leather goods, a special market for electrical goods, a special market for iron goods, and so on.

D. In the same way there are general stores and special stores. A general store is a store in which every sort of goods may be got, but a special store is a store in which only one sort of goods may be got. There are special stores in which we get only pens. There are special stores in which we get only books, pencils and paper. There are special stores in which we get only leather bags. And so on.

E. A canteen is a special sort of store which is open only to soldiers. It is opened specially for soldiers. Here soldiers get things not at market prices but at special prices which are less than the market prices.



26

F. Sami and Menon are getting ready for a special parade. It is not an everyday parade, at which they take their orders from the N.C.O. It is a special parade, at which the General will be present. The special parade is going to take place at eight o'clock. The General will give medals to four men in the regiment—three D.S.O.'s and one V.C. Sami and Menon are taking special care to see that their dress is all in order. They had their hair cut last night. They had a clean and smooth shave early in the morning. Their rifles are cleaned ; their boots are bright and polished. Sami is putting on his shorts and Menon is combing his

hair. In two or three minutes they will take their rifles and go to the parade-ground.

G. The complete regiment is lined up for the special parade. The men who are to be given medals are lined up in front of the General, who is pinning a medal to the shirt of one of the men. After pinning the medals the General will give a short talk. The medals were given for what the men did on the Burma front. The men who get the medals will be given a special payment.

A1 : What part of a town is the market ?
2 : A village has no market. When is business and trading done then ?
3 : Who come to the village market on market day ?
4 : What do farmers (milkmen, shoe-makers, fishermen) take ?
5 : What do they generally get in exchange for their goods ?
6 : What do they get if it is not money ?
7 : When is it possible to get a good price for goods ?
8 : When do we say there is a good market for tomatoes ?
9 : When do we say there is no market for tomatoes ?

B1 : What do you see in this picture of a market ?
2 : What is the market full of ?
3 : Why is there generally no argument about prices in a market in Europe ?
4 : Why are arguments about prices common in India ?
5 : Why do you see more men than women in this picture of an Indian market ?
6 : Who mostly goes to market in Europe ?
7 : What are the men and women in the market doing ?
8 : A market is a place for exchanging goods. What other thing may sometimes be exchanged at a market ?

C1 : How is a general market different from a special one ?
2 : What is it possible to get at the market in the picture ?
3 : What sort of market is it ?
4 : What special markets are there in this town ?
5 : What may be got at the vegetable market (fruit market, cloth market, fish market) ?
6 : What other special markets are there ?

D1 : What is a general store (special store) ?
2 : What special stores may there be ?

E1 : What sort of store is a canteen ?
2 : For whom is it specially opened ?
3 : For what prices do soldiers get things at canteens ?

F1 : What are Sami and Menon getting ready for ?
2 : Why is it a special parade ?
3 : What time will it take place ?
4 : What is the General going to do ?
5 : What are Sami and Menon doing ?
6 : What have they done ?
7 : What are they doing now ?
8 : What will they do in two or three minutes ?

G1 : What is the regiment doing ?
2 : Who are lined up in front of the General ?
3 : What is the General doing ?
4 : What will he do after pinning the medals ?
5 : Why were the men given the medals ?
6 : What will the men with the medals be given ?

P1 : (Mangoes) are very much in request in this place. Mangoes have a good market in this place.

S : Mangoes : apples, oranges, berries, nuts, potatoes, etc.

2 : (Books) are not very much in request in this place. There is no market for books in this place.

S : Books : watches, bicycles, etc.

3 : What's a general word for (red, white, blue, yellow, etc.) ?

S : Red, white, etc. : coffee, tea, cocoa, etc. ; rice, wheat, jowar, etc. ; plate, basin, pot, etc. ; cricket, tennis, football, etc. ; one, two, three, etc. ; Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, etc.

4 : My (eyes) (are) bad. That is why I am taking special care of my eyes.

S : Eyes : ears, teeth, nose, throat.

5 : I take a general interest in all games and a special interest in (football).

S : Football : hockey, cricket, tennis, etc.

6 : This (table) was specially made for me.

S : Table : seat, shelf, cupboard, bag, box, etc.

7 : It has been (warm) for some time. But today it is specially warm.

S : Warm : cold, wet.

M1 : The General Opinion

KHAN [*back in village*] : Who makes the best (cloth) in the village ?

KARIM : The general opinion is that Rahim makes the best cloth in the village.

KHAN : Is that the opinion of most of the villagers ?

KARIM : Yes, that is the general opinion.

S : Cloth : chappals, etc.

2 : Special Train

SAMI : When does the train to Poona go out ?

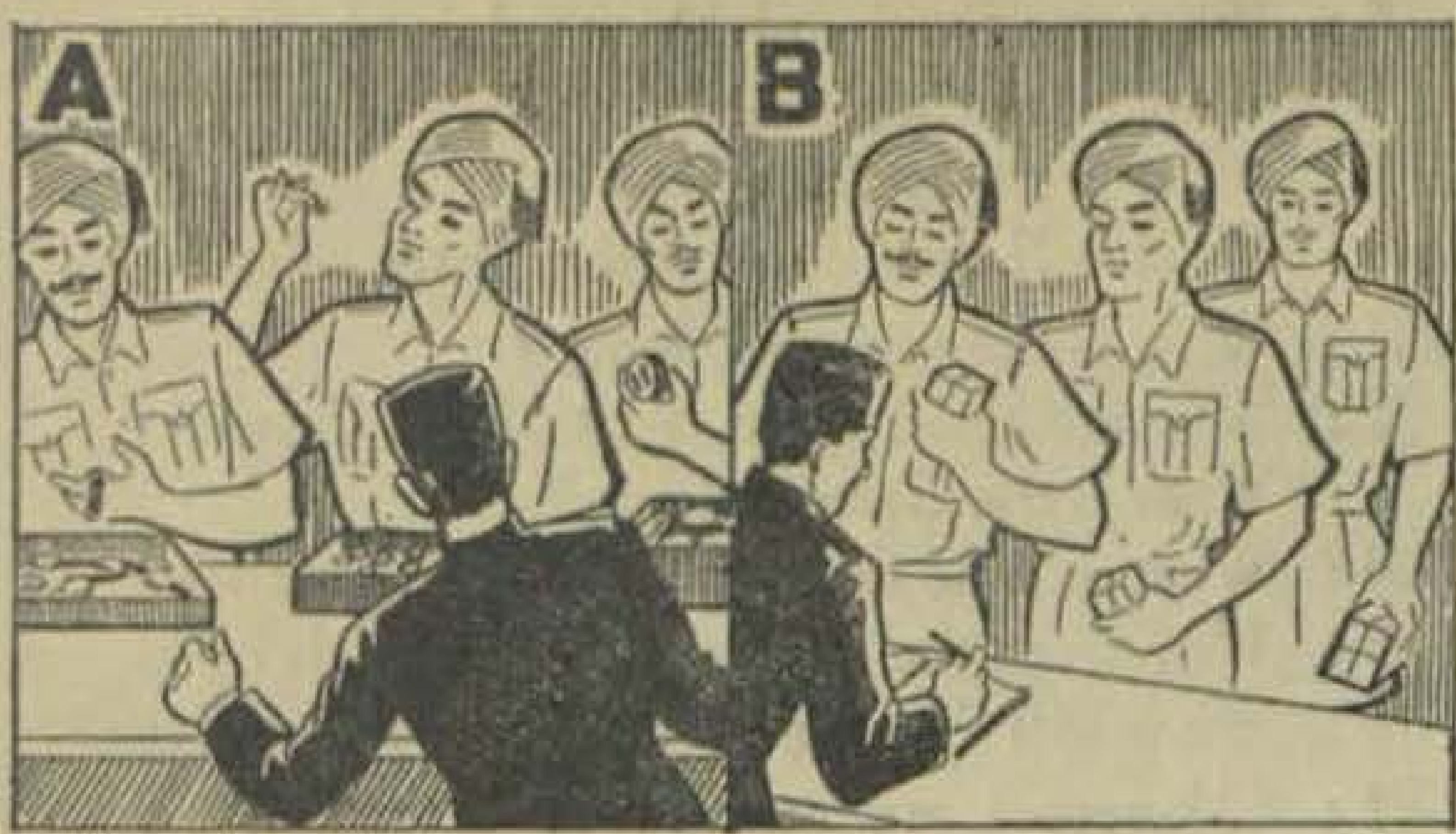
MENON : We're going to Poona by a special train.

SAMI : A special train ?

MENON : Yes, they're running a train specially for troops. They won't take any civilians on that train.

Unit 27 : Selection of V.C.O.'s

selection, record, receipt, distribution



A. Khan, Karim and Shah are at a general store. It is one of the most important general stores in the market. It has almost every sort of goods. Khan, Karim and Shah have come specially to this store because the things here are cheap and good. Khan is looking for a cheap watch for his brother, Karim is looking for a gold ring for his sister, and Shah is looking for some boot-polish for himself. One of the storemen has put a box full of watches before Khan. Khan is looking at every watch in turn with care. Out of the fifteen watches in the box he will take the one which seems to him to be the best; Khan is making a selection of a watch. Karim has a box full of rings in front of him. He is taking every ring out of the box and going over it with care. Out of the thirty rings in the box he will take the one which seems to him to be the most beautiful; Karim is making a selection of a ring. Shah is looking into a box which is full of different sorts of boot-polish. After making certain about the quality of every sort of boot-polish he will take the one which will give his boots the brightest polish; Shah is making a selection of a boot-polish.

B. Khan, Karim and Shah have now made their selection. The watch, the ring and the boot-polish which they have got are very good. They have made a good selection. The three things have been made into three little parcels, round which have been put thin but strong cords. Khan, Karim and Shah are now waiting in front of a clerk who is writing something in a book. Khan made his payment to the clerk only a minute back. The clerk is making a record of the payment in his book. He has to make a record of all payments. That is his work. After making a record of the payment in his book he will give Khan a receipt for the payment. A receipt is a bit of paper on which are recorded the name of the store, the name of the person who makes the payment, the price of the goods and the date on which the payment is made. These are the things which are generally (as a rule) recorded in a receipt. Khan will take good care of the receipt, for a receipt is a sign that payment has been made. The loss of a receipt may be as bad as the loss of money. The clerk will give a receipt not only to Khan but to Karim and Shah as well.



C. News has been sent round that the regiment is in need of five more V.C.O.'s, and that a selection of five men will be made from the N.C.O.'s in the regiment. The selection of five men for the post of V.C.O. will take place on Sunday. There will be two sorts of test—one in which answers are put down in writing, and another in which questions will have to be answered in person before a group of three officers who will make the selection.

D. Ten N.C.O.'s are taking the test for the selection of V.C.O.'s. The officer is giving every N.C.O. paper on which the answers are to be put down. After the distribution of the paper he will give every N.C.O. a pen and some ink to do his writing with. After the distribution of the pens and the ink he will give every N.C.O. a special sort of paper—some blotting paper—to get the ink dry. After the distribution of the blotting paper he will give every N.C.O. a question-paper on which the questions are put down. The distribution of pens, ink and question-papers will take about ten minutes. After the distribution is over he will take a seat at one end of the room and keep an eye on the N.C.O.'s who are answering the questions.

E. The first test is over. An N.C.O. is now taking his second test. He is answering questions in person before the officers who are going to make the selection. The one in the middle has a book open on the table in front of him. In this book are recorded a number of things—the N.C.O.'s name, the name of the place from which he comes, how old he is, how long he has been in the Army, how good his map-reading is, how good his shooting is, how much fighting he has done and so on. The N.C.O. whom the officers are now questioning has done well in all the map-reading tests which he took from the day he came into the Army. He has a good record in map-reading. He has done well in all the shooting practices in which he has ever taken part. He has a good record in shooting. He comes first in sports competitions like walking, running, high jump, swimming and cycling. He has a good sports record. He has seen fighting in Libya, Eritrea, Abyssinya, Tripoli, Tunisia, Sicily and Italy. He has a good

fighting record. Of all the men who are taking the test he has the best all-round record. There is little doubt that when the selection is over he will be one of the five new V.C.O.'s.

A1 : Where are Khan, Karim and Shah ?
2 : What sort of store is it ?
3 : Why do you say it is a general store ?
4 : Why have Khan, Karim and Shah come specially to this store ?
5 : What is Khan (Karim, Shah) looking for ?
6 : What has one of the storemen put before Khan ?
7 : Out of the fifteen watches in the box which one will he take ?
8 : What is a shorter way of saying that ?
9 : What has Karim in front of him ?
10 : Out of the thirty rings in the box which one will he take ?
11 : What is a shorter way of saying that ?
12 : What sort of boot-polish will Shah take ?
13 : What is another way of saying that ?

B1 : Khan, Karim and Shah have now made their selection. Have they made a good selection ?
2 : Why do you say that they have made a good selection ?
3 : Where are the watch, the ring and the boot-polish ?
4 : What have been put round the parcels ?
5 : What are Khan, Karim and Shah doing now ?
6 : What is the clerk doing ?
7 : When did Khan make his payment to the clerk ?
8 : What is the clerk doing in his book ?
9 : What sort of work does he do ?
10 : What will he do after making a record of the payment in his book ?
11 : What is a receipt ?
12 : What things are generally recorded in a receipt ?
13 : Why will Khan take good care of the receipt ?
14 : To whom will the clerk give receipts ?

C1 : What is the number of V.C.O.'s needed in the regiment ?
2 : From whom will the selection be made ?
3 : When will the selection take place ?
4 : What two sorts of tests will there be ?

D1 : What are the N.C.O.'s taking the test for ?
2 : What is the officer giving the N.C.O.'s ?
3 : What is the paper for ?
4 : What will he give the N.C.O.'s after the distribution of paper (pens, blotting paper) ?
5 : How long will the distribution take ?
6 : What will he do after the distribution is over ?

E1 : Is this still the first test ?
2 : What's this N.C.O. doing ?
3 : Is he answering the questions on paper or is he answering them in person ?
4 : Who are putting the questions ?
5 : What has the officer in the middle in front of him ?
6 : What are recorded in this book ?
7 : What sort of record has the N.C.O. in map-reading (shooting) ?
8 : Why do you say he has a good record in map-reading (shooting) ?
9 : Has he a good sports (fighting) record ?
10 : Why do you say he has a good sports (fighting) record ?
11 : Of all the men who are taking the test who has the best record ?
12 : Will he be one of the five new V.C.O.'s when the selection is over ?

P1 : I am making a selection of a (pencil) from this box. I'll have this one.
S : Pencil : rubber, ruler, needle, hammer, knife, spoon, etc.
N : While saying this the learner has a look at all the pencils etc. in turn.

2 : Are (those) your new (shoes) ? They are very good. You have made a good selection.
S : Shoes : boots, shirt, hat, socks, stockings, shorts, trousers.

3 : I am making a record of the man's (name).
S : Name : number, name of regiment, etc.

4 : I keep a record of everything I (see) in a little book.
S : See : do, say.

5 : He has a good record as a (teacher).
S : Teacher : doctor, engineer, cook, signaller, etc.

6 : I gave him the (money) and he gave me a receipt for it.
S : Money : gold, silver, parcel.

7 : The sergeant gave every one of us a (blanket). After the distribution of the blankets we went back to our quarters.
S : Blanket : pugree, shirt, belt, water-bottle, haversack, mosquito net, pair of stockings, pair of boots.

8 : There was a distribution of (biscuits) at the parade. Every one of us got (four) biscuits.
S : Biscuits : cigarettes, chapatis, mangoes, apples, etc.

Seatwork

Put these statements differently, without changing their sense, by using the right word from this list : receipt, distribution, selection.

1. I am seeing which of these umbrellas is the best.

....

2. He is giving everyone a sweet.

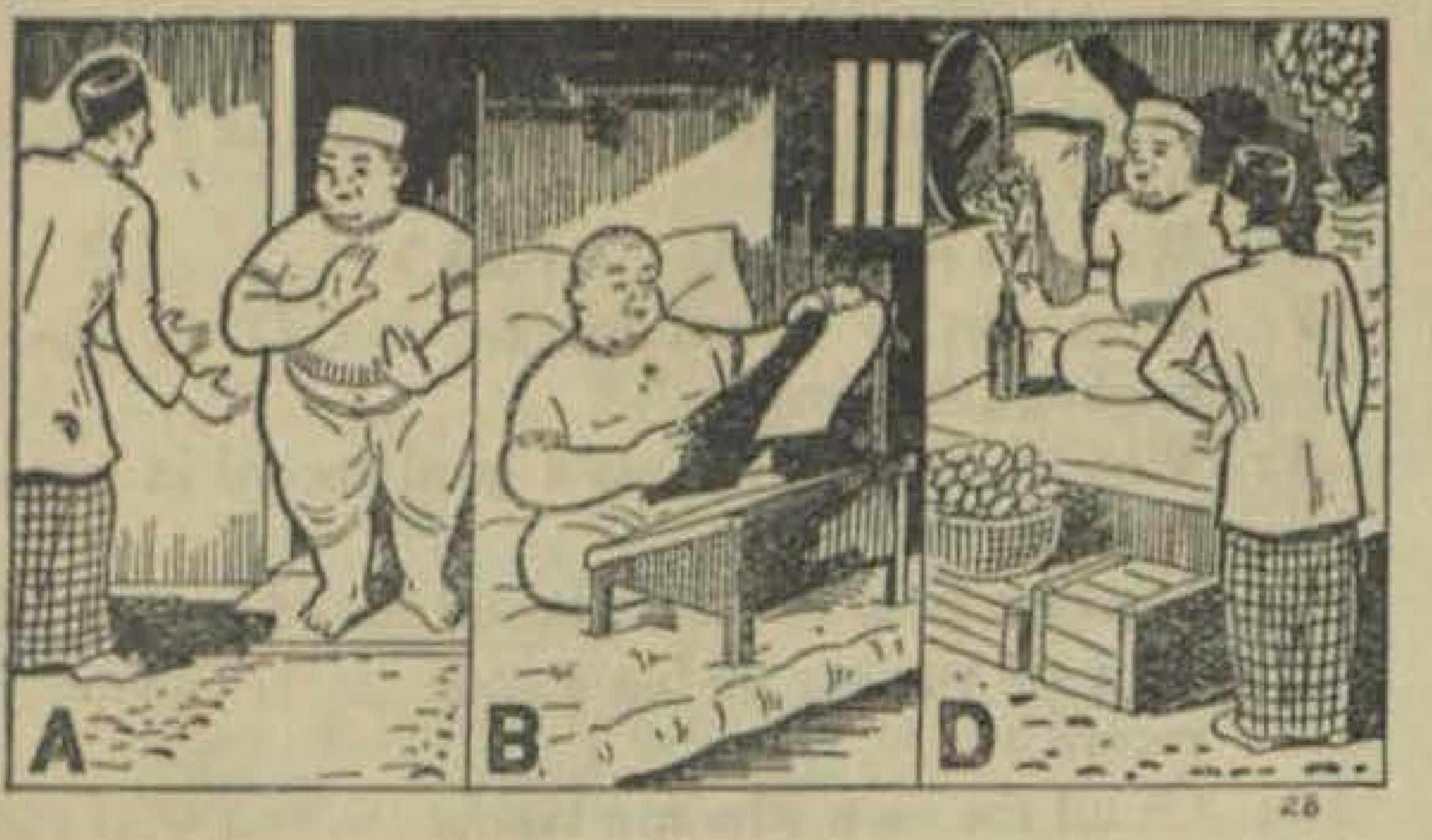
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3. This bit of paper is a sign that you have given me the money.

....

Unit 28 : The Village Bania

debt, credit, rate

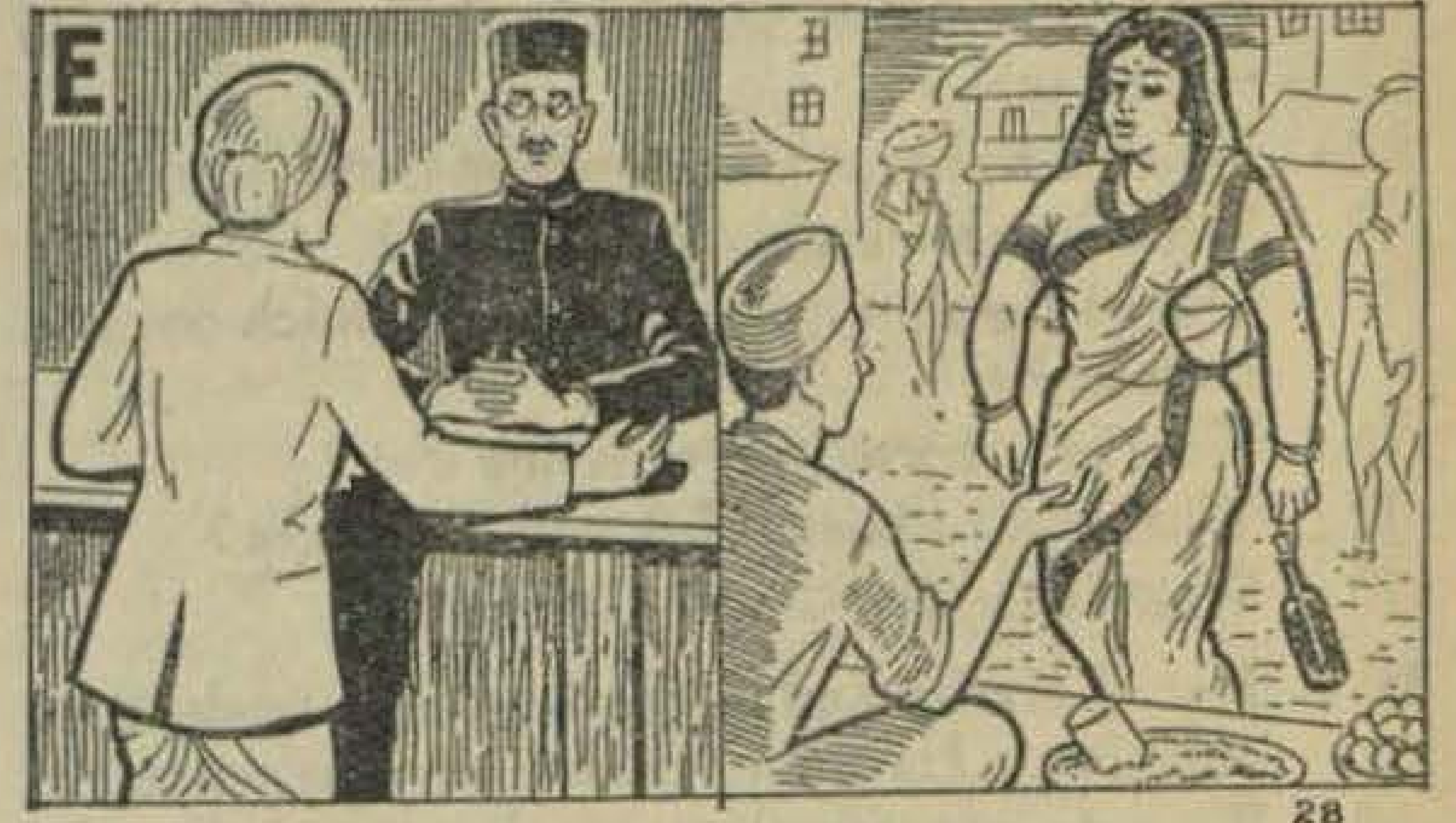


A. Dondu and Agarwal are talking to one another in front of Agarwal's house. The fat man with the turban on is Agarwal, the village bania. The tall thin man dressed in a 'lungi' is Dondu, one of the farmers in the village. Dondu is going to get his daughter married, and he has now come to the bania with a request for money. Dondu says that he has to have at least 150 rupees, which he will give back after a year. Will the bania give him the money? That is the question. The bania says that he has no money at present, but if at the end of the year Dondu will give him back not 150 rupees but 225 rupees, that is, 75 rupees more than he has taken, the bania may be able to give him the money now. Dondu is so badly in need of the money that he says that he is ready to give the bania 225 rupees at the end of the year, if the bania will give him 150 rupees now.

B. Agarwal is now back in his house. He has given Dondu 150 rupees, and Dondu has given him a receipt for it. In the receipt are recorded the amount of money which Dondu has taken (150 rupees), the amount of money which Dondu has to give back (225 rupees), and the date on which the payment has to be made. Agarwal has made a record of all this in his book, and has put the receipt in one of the drawers of his table. He is now turning over the pages of the book and going through the records.

C. Dondu will now have to give Agarwal 225 rupees. Till he gives the money back Dondu will have a debt of 225 rupees. Money which we have taken from someone, and which has to be given back after a fixed time, is a debt. Most farmers in the village have debts or are in debt. They have all taken money from Agarwal and are in his debt. Pandurang has debts amounting to 250 rupees. Vithal has debts amounting to 300 rupees. Ismail has debts amounting to 350 rupees. And Hussein has debts amounting to 400 rupees. They are all in Agarwal's debt. They are his debtors; he is their creditor. The man who gives the money is the creditor. The man who takes the money is the debtor.

D. Dondu is getting kerosene oil for his light at a store. It is a general store where one may get kerosene oil, cloth, salt or sugar, the sort of things which villagers are generally in need of. It is the only store in the village and it is the property of Agarwal, the money-trader. Dondu is getting a bottle of kerosene, but he has no money to make a payment here and now; he will make the payment when his produce is marketed and he has some money. Dondu is getting things from Agarwal on credit. Dondu is not the only man who gets things on credit from Agarwal's store; quite a number of other villagers get things on credit. Vithal gets his things on credit. Ismail gets his things on credit. Hussein gets his things on credit.



E. Ganpat is at the village co-operative bank. He has a great need for money. The time for ploughing and planting the seeds is near. He is going to get the best seeds and the best fertilizers in the market. He says that if the best seeds and the best fertilizers are used there will be more produce. But he has not enough money to get the best seeds and fertilizers. He has to have 100 rupees from the co-operative bank. The co-operative bank will give the money readily if Ganpat will give back 105 rupees at the end of the year. The five rupees are a payment for the use of the money which the bank is giving him. It is the 'interest' which he has to give the bank for letting him have the use of its money. The bank is his creditor. He is the bank's debtor. A debtor has to give the creditor a certain amount of money as interest for the use of the money which the creditor is giving him.

F. At the co-operative bank the amount of interest is 5 rupees for a year for every 100 rupees. Another way of saying this is that the rate of interest is 5 per cent (for every hundred). For 100 rupees for two years the interest will be 10 rupees. For 200 rupees for two years the interest will be 20 rupees. Ganpat will have no trouble in giving back the money in less than two months, because by then his produce will be marketed and he will have enough money to make the payment. If he gives the money back in two months the interest will be less than $13\frac{1}{2}$ annas. Ganpat never goes to a bania for money; whenever he is in need of money he goes to the co-operative bank. At the co-operative bank the rate of interest is very low; it may be as low as 5 per cent. But at a bania's the rate of interest may be very

high ; it may be as high as 50 per cent. Sometimes the rate of interest may even be as high as 100 per cent.

G. Giji Bai, who has come to the store to get kerosene and sugar, is married to Ganpat. She has got the kerosene and sugar and is now making the payment. Giji Bai never gets things on credit; she never gets anything without making a payment then and there. She never gets anything on credit herself, and she never lets Ganpat get anything on credit. Whenever Ganpat gets his bidis, for example, he makes a payment then and there. She says it is a wise thing never to get things on credit. Because if you do it is possible you will get more things than you have money to make the payment with later.

A1 : Where are Dondu and Agarwal ?
2 : Which of the two men is Agarwal ?
3 : Which of the two men is Dondu ?
4 : What is Dondu ?
5 : Why has he come to the bania ?
6 : How much money is he in need of ?
7 : When will he give it back ?
8 : How much money will Dondu have to give the bania ?
9 : Why is Dondu ready to give the bania 75 rupees more than he has taken ?

B1 : Where is Agarwal now ?
2 : How much money has he given to Dondu ?
3 : What has Dondu given him ?
4 : How much money will Dondu have to give back ?
5 : When will he have to give the money back ?
6 : Where are these two things recorded ?
7 : Where has Agarwal put Dondu's receipt ?
8 : What is Agarwal doing now ?

C1 : How much money will Dondu have to give Agarwal ?
2 : What will his debt be till the money is given back?
3 : What is a debt ?
4 : Have any farmers in the village debts ?
5 : In whose debt are they ?
6 : What is the amount of Pandurang's (Vithal's, Ismail's, Hussein's) debts ?
7 : Who are the debtors ?
8 : Who is their creditor ?
9 : What is a creditor (debtor) ?

D1 : What is Dondu getting from the store ?
2 : What sort of store is this ?
3 : Why do you say it is a general store ?
4 : Whose property is the store ?
5 : When will Dondu make the payment for the bottle of kerosene ?
6 : Why does he not make the payment now ?
7 : What is another way of saying this ?
8 : Who get things on credit in the village ?

E1 : Where is Ganpat ?
2 : Why has he a need for money ?
3 : What sort of seeds and fertilizers is he going to get ?
4 : Why is he going to get the best ?
5 : How much money will he have to get from the co-operative bank ?
6 : How much money will he have to give back to the co-operative credit bank ?
7 : What are the five rupees for ?
8 : What is another name for this ?
9 : Who is his creditor ?
10 : What has the debtor to give the creditor ?
11 : Why does he have to give interest ?

F1 : What is the amount of interest at the co-operative bank ?
2 : What is the rate of interest ?
3 : What will be the interest on 100 rupees (200 rupees etc.) for two (three etc.) years ?
4 : Why won't Ganpat have any trouble in giving the money back ?
5 : How much will the interest be if he gives the money back in two months ?
6 : Where does Ganpat go whenever he is in need of money ?
7 : Why does he go to a co-operative credit bank ?
8 : What is the rate of interest at a bania's as a rule ?
9 : How high may it be sometimes ?

G1 : Who has come to the store to get kerosene and sugar ?
2 : To whom is she married ?
3 : What is she giving the storeman ?
4 : Does she ever get things on credit ?
5 : Does she ever let Ganpat get anything on credit ?
6 : Why is it unwise to get things on credit ?

P1 : I have to give the bania (one hundred) rupees. I have a debt of one hundred rupees.
S : One hundred : one hundred and twenty, etc.
2 : Our (cook) is in debt. He has to give the bania seventy-five rupees.
S : Cook : servant, watchman, gardener, dhobi, milkman, etc.
3 : You don't get your (cigarettes) on credit at the canteen. You have to make payment then and there.
S : Cigarettes : soap, blades, socks, watches, pens, etc.
4 : The (car) went down the slope at the rate of (forty) miles an hour.
S : Car : bus, lorry, truck, jeep, train.
5 : I got these (oranges) at the rate of (twelve) oranges a rupee.
S : Oranges : mangoes, bananas, apples, berries.
6 : We are learning English at the rate of 5 words a day.
S : English : Urdu, Hindi, etc.

Unit 29 : Ganpat and His Family

increase, account



A. Ganpat is putting ten rupees in a 'savings bank'. Ganpat has made all his payments for the month—the payment to the co-operative bank for the use of its money, the payment to the land-owner for the use of the land, the payment to the house-owner for the use of the house, the payment to the storeman for the cloth, kerosene, sugar, salt and other things which will be needed. After making all the payments he still has ten rupees with him. These are his 'savings', and the place where he keeps his savings is the savings bank.

B. The clerk at the window is making a record of the payment in a book. He is putting down ten rupees to Ganpat's credit. Whenever someone puts a certain amount of money in a savings bank the money is put down to his credit. Another way of saying this is that the man is credited with the money which he has put in. The clerk is surprised that Ganpat is able to put ten rupees into the savings bank every month. While crediting Ganpat with the ten rupees he says to him, "You have now 100 rupees in the savings bank to your credit, Mr. Ganpat. It seems to me you are making a great amount of money these days. Possibly you are getting a very good price for your produce." Says Ganpat to the clerk, "I am not making much money, but I make certain that I am able to put at least ten rupees in the savings bank every month."

C. What the clerk said was true. Only ten months back, in January, Ganpat had only ten rupees to his credit in the savings bank. In February, when he put another ten rupees in, he had twenty rupees to his credit in the savings bank. There was an increase of ten rupees in his savings. In March, when he put ten rupees in again, he had thirty rupees to his credit in the savings bank. There was an increase of twenty rupees in his savings. Every time he put ten rupees in the savings bank there was an increase of ten rupees in his savings. His savings have gone on increasing at the rate of ten rupees every month, and now he has one hundred rupees to his credit in the savings bank.



D. What are these savings for ? What is Ganpat going to do with the money ? The answer is quite clear. He will have to get his daughter married ; there will be a need for money then. His father is very old and his death may take place at any time ; money will be needed once again. Every year there are 'Ashtami', 'Chauti', 'Divali' ; one has to get new dhotis, new shawls, new saris ; one has to have different sorts of food and drink. Again money is needed. Ganpat says that the money for all this has to come from one's savings, and there is little doubt that he is right. It is foolish to get into debt for one's amusements. It is good to have some amusement from time to time, but the money for the amusements has to come from savings. Ganpat has a great fear of getting into debt. He says that if a man gets into debt his debts will go on increasing and he will never be able to get out of debt again.

E. Ganpat is different from most of his friends. He has different ideas and opinions about things. He goes about his work in a different way. He was in the Army for four years. He has been in Italy, England and France. He has seen villages and farms in other lands, and he has opinions about how to make Indian villages better. He is different from his farmer friends in six ways :

1. He never gets money from another for any of his pleasures or amusements.
2. He gets money from another only when it may be used for increasing the produce of his land.
3. He never goes to a bania for money. Whenever money is needed he goes to the village co-operative bank.
4. He never gets things from a store on credit. He makes the payments then and there.
5. Every month he puts by a little money in the savings bank. And whenever Ashtami or Chauti or Divali is near he takes money from his savings.
6. He takes a great interest in his home and his family.

F. Like Ganpat, Giji Bai is different from her women friends in a number of ways :

1. She has been to school, and so she has some knowledge of reading and writing.

2. She takes a great interest in house-keeping. She takes care to see that the house is kept clean and beautiful, that her boy and girl, Prem and Sita, are well-dressed, that they go to school every day, that the food which she gets ready is good and healthy.

3. She takes care to see that Prem and Sita are 'vaccinated' every three years. She has a good knowledge of the cause of some of the commonest diseases and she takes measures to keep them away.

4. Whenever someone in her family is badly ill she sends for the nearest doctor.

G. Ganpat, Giji Bai, Ramu and Mina are very good friends and have been living together very happily for a long time now. Whenever Ganpat is not on the farm or at a village meeting he is at home most of the time helping Giji Bai with the house-work. Every night after their meal they have a long talk together. If Ganpat has been to a meeting he gives an account of the meeting—at what time the meeting took place, who were present, what everyone said, what business they did, and what time the meeting came to an end. He gives a complete account of the meeting at which he was present. Ramu and Mina then give an account of their day at school—what reading and writing they did, what new knowledge they got and what games they had. Then Ramu and Mina go to bed. When they are in bed Giji Bai gives Ganpat an account of all the payments which she has made on that day. She keeps an account of all the payments which she makes in a special book, the accounts book.

A1 : What different payments has Ganpat made for the month ?
2 : How much money has he with him after making these payments ?
3 : What are these ten rupees ?
4 : Where does he keep his savings ?

B1 : What is the clerk doing ?
2 : How much money is he putting down to Ganpat's credit ?
3 : Whenever someone puts money in a savings bank what does the clerk do ?
4 : Why is the clerk surprised ?
5 : What does he say to Ganpat while crediting him with the money ?
6 : What does Ganpat say to the clerk ?

C1 : How much money had Ganpat to his credit in January last ?
2 : How much money did he put in the savings bank in February ?
3 : How much money did he have to his credit in February ?
4 : What was the increase in his savings ?
5 : How much money did he have to his credit in March ?
6 : What was the increase in his savings over February (January) ?
7 : At what rate have his savings gone on increasing ?
8 : How much money has he in the savings bank to his credit now ?

D1 : When will he have a need for money ? What are these savings for ?
2 : Why is money needed for *Chauti* or *Ashtami* or *Divali* ?
3 : Where has the money for all this to come from ?
4 : Is it wise to get into debt for one's amusements ?
5 : Where has the money for the amusements to come from ?
6 : Why has Ganpat a great fear of getting into debt ?

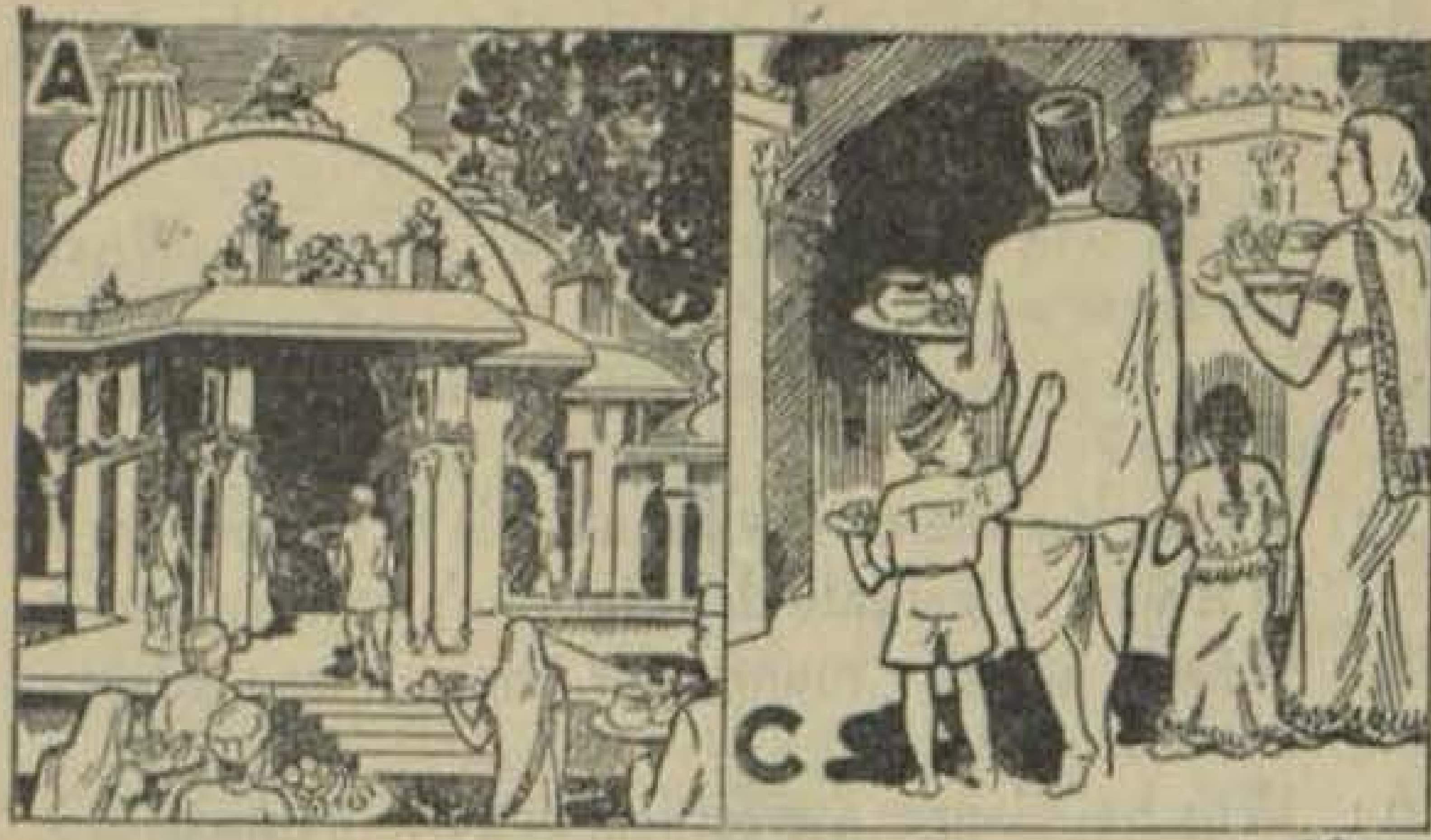
E1 : How is Ganpat different from his friends ?
2 : How long was he in the Army ?
3 : In what countries has he been ?
4 : What has he seen in other lands ?
5 : Where does he go whenever he is in need of money ?
6 : Does Ganpat ever get things on credit ?
7 : What does he do every month ?
8 : Where does he get money from whenever Ashtami or Divali is near ?
9 : What does he take a great interest in ?

F1 : What makes it clear that Giji Bai has been to school ?
2 : What does she take most interest in ?
3 : Why do you say she takes most interest in house-keeping ?
4 : What does she do every three years ?
5 : Why is she able to keep the commonest diseases away ?
6 : What does she do whenever someone in the family is very ill ?

G1 : How long have Ganpat, Giji Bai, Ramu and Mina been living together ?
2 : What does Ganpat do whenever he is not on his farm or at a village meeting ?
3 : What do Ganpat and his family do every night after their meal ?
4 : If Ganpat has been to a meeting what has he to say about it to Giji Bai ?
5 : What is a short way of saying this ?
6 : What do Ramu and Mina give an account of ?
7 : What have they to say about their day at school ?
8 : What does Giji Bai give an account of when Ramu and Mina are in bed ?
9 : Where does she keep an account of all her payments ?

Unit 30 : Keep It Secret

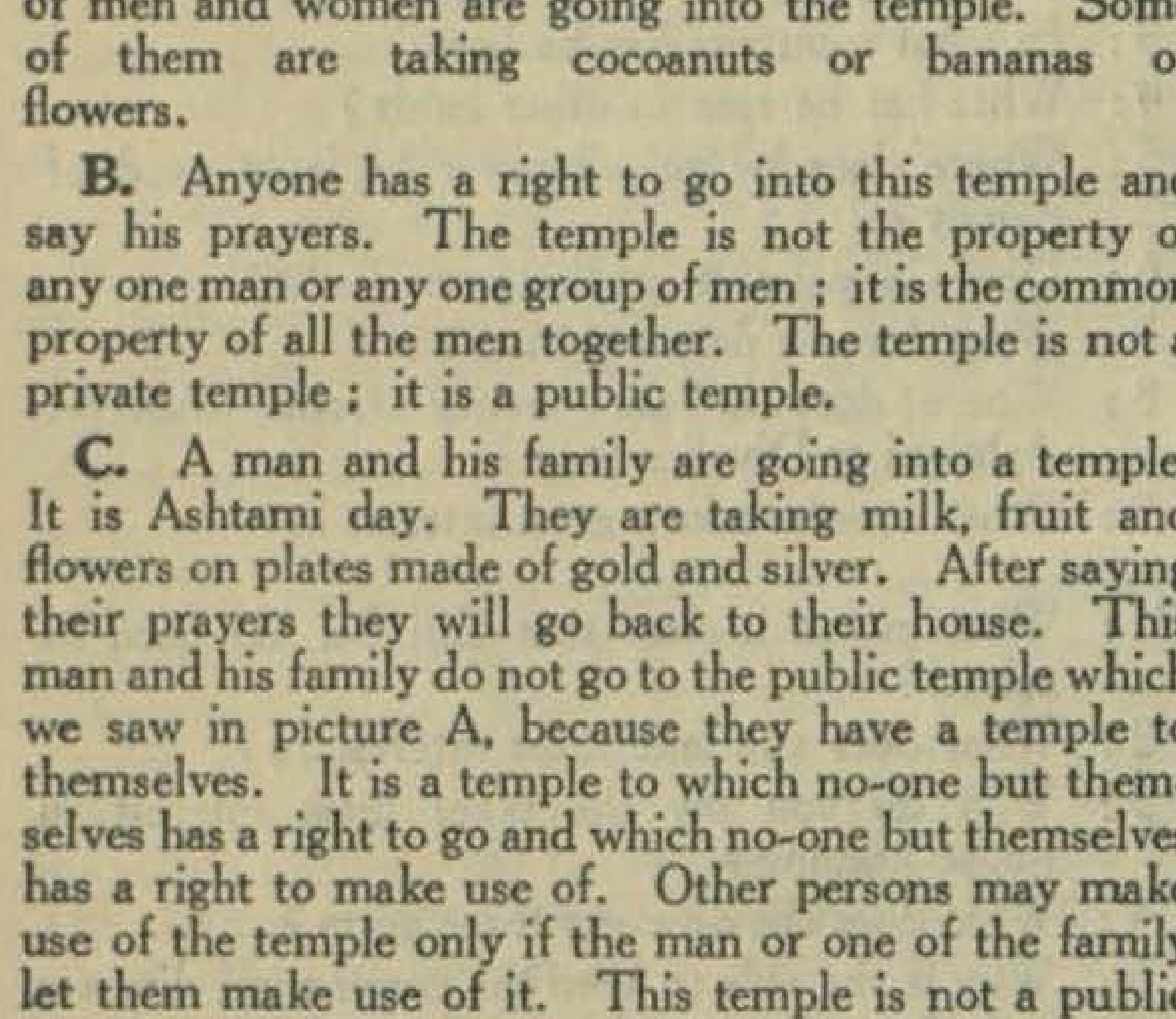
private, public, secret



A. Today is Ashtami. For Hindus it is one of the most important days in the year. A great number of men and women are going into the temple. Some of them are taking cocoanuts or bananas or flowers.

B. Anyone has a right to go into this temple and say his prayers. The temple is not the property of any one man or any one group of men ; it is the common property of all the men together. The temple is not a private temple ; it is a public temple.

C. A man and his family are going into a temple. It is Ashtami day. They are taking milk, fruit and flowers on plates made of gold and silver. After saying their prayers they will go back to their house. This man and his family do not go to the public temple which we saw in picture A, because they have a temple to themselves. It is a temple to which no-one but themselves has a right to go and which no-one but themselves has a right to make use of. Other persons may make use of the temple only if the man or one of the family let them make use of it. This temple is not a public temple ; it is a private temple.



D. There are a great number of persons in this garden. It is one of the longest and widest in the town. We see little groups of men and women here and there. This garden is open to everyone in the town ; anyone may come here between seven in the morning and seven at night for a walk or a game or a picnic. This is not a private garden ; it is a public garden to which everyone in the town has a right to go.

E. A man and his family are talking together in a little garden. This garden has a brick wall all round it. At the back of the garden we see the man's house. It is a beautiful little garden, full of flowers of all colours. No-one has a right to come into this garden but the man and his family. Others may make use of it only if the man or his family let them make use of it. This garden is not a public garden ; it is a private garden. It is not open to everyone in the town.

F. In every town there are public places and private places, public buildings and private buildings, public roads and private roads, public vehicles and private vehicles. Buses and tram-cars are examples of public vehicles. Motor-cars are examples of private vehicles. A taxi is only another name for a public motor-car.

G. Property is of two sorts—public property and private property. The owner of public property is generally the government (sirkar) or the municipality or, in a village, the village panchayat. The owner of private property is a special person (or individual). We have these two sorts of property, public and private, in almost every village. There are lands which are the common property of all the men in the village, and other lands which are the property of private persons. The lands which are public property are used for producing food for the farm animals. The villagers let their cows and bullocks into them. The lands which are private property are used for producing food for men. The lands are ploughed and planted with rice or wheat.

H. There are a number of things which we do not generally do in public, that is to say, in a public place. For example, we do not generally have our bath in public, with other men and women looking on. We do not generally have our meals in public. And we never put on or take off our clothing in public. But there are other things which we generally do in public. Generally a man and a woman get married in public. Competitions, like running competitions or walking competitions or jumping competitions, generally take place in public. Football matches or hockey matches or cricket matches take place in public. Some military parades, like the Proclamation Day Parade or a Victory Parade, take place publicly. The public, the men and women of the place, are specially requested to come and see a Proclamation Day Parade.

I. In time of war certain sorts of military news are not given to the public ; they are not made public, they are kept secret from the public. For example, news about places to which troops are sent is kept secret.

News about how strong an army is or what arms it has is kept secret. News about places where arms are stored is kept secret. News about the time at which ships or airplanes or troop trains come in or go out is kept secret. That is to say, all news which may be of use to the enemy is kept secret.

J. In a war great care is taken to see that the enemy gets no knowledge of what we are doing. For example, when we put up machine-gun posts on a battle-field we put them up in secret places of which the enemy has no knowledge. Then again when we are getting ready for an attack or an offensive we get our things ready at night secretly, so that the enemy may have no knowledge of the coming attack or offensive and so may be taken by surprise when he is attacked.

K. There are such things as military secrets. And one of the most important duties of a soldier is not to say anything about these secrets to his friends who are not in the Army. If he gives away a secret to a friend this friend may go and give the news to one of his friends. In this way the news may get about and in the end come to the knowledge of the enemy. That is the danger. So it is a wise thing not to say anything about military secrets to anyone, specially to women. Maybe you never keep anything secret from the woman to whom you are married. Still you have to take great care that you do not let her into a military secret. If you do you will be very foolish, because women are never good at keeping secrets.

A1 : What day is it today ?
2 : For whom is it one of the most important days in the year ?
3 : Where are the men and women going ?
4 : What are they taking with them ?

B1 : Has everyone a right to go into this temple to say his prayers ?
2 : Whose property is the temple ?
3 : Is the temple a private temple or a public temple ?

C1 : Who are going into this temple ?
2 : What day is it ?
3 : What are the man and his family taking with them ?
4 : Where will they go after saying their prayers ?
5 : Why don't they go to the public temple to say their prayers ?
6 : Has everyone a right to make use of this temple ?
7 : When may others make use of it ?
8 : Is it a private temple or a public temple ?

D1 : What is this ?
2 : What do we see here and there ?
3 : Is this garden open to everyone ?
4 : When is it open ?
5 : Is this a private garden or a public garden ?

E1 : Where are the man and his family ?
2 : What has the garden all round it ?
3 : Where is the man's house ?
4 : Has everyone a right to come into this garden ?
5 : When may others make use of it ?
6 : Is it a private or a public garden ?
7 : Why do you say it is a private garden ?

F1 : What two different sorts of places (buildings, roads, vehicles) are there in every town ?
2 : Give two examples of public vehicles.
3 : Give one example of a private vehicle.
4 : What is another name for a public motor-car ?

G1 : What two different sorts of property are there ?
2 : Who is generally the owner of public property ?
3 : Who is generally the owner of public property in a village ?
4 : Who is the owner of private property ?
5 : What are lands which are public property (private property) used for in a village ?

H1 : Give three examples of things which we generally do not do in public.
2 : Give three examples of things which we generally do in public.
3 : Who is specially requested to come and see a Proclamation Day Parade ?

I1 : What sort of news is not made public in time of war ?
2 : Say this using the word *secret*.
3 : Give examples of four sorts of news which is kept secret in times of war.
4 : Why is this sort of news kept secret ?

J1 : Where do we put up a machine-gun post on a battle-field ?
2 : Why do you say these places are secret ?
3 : How do we get ready for an attack or an offensive ?
4 : Why do we get ready for an attack secretly ?

K1 : What name would you give to such secrets ?
2 : What is one of the most important duties of a soldier ?
3 : If he gives away a secret to a friend what may this friend do ?
4 : What is the danger in this ?
5 : Why is it foolish to let women into a military secret ?

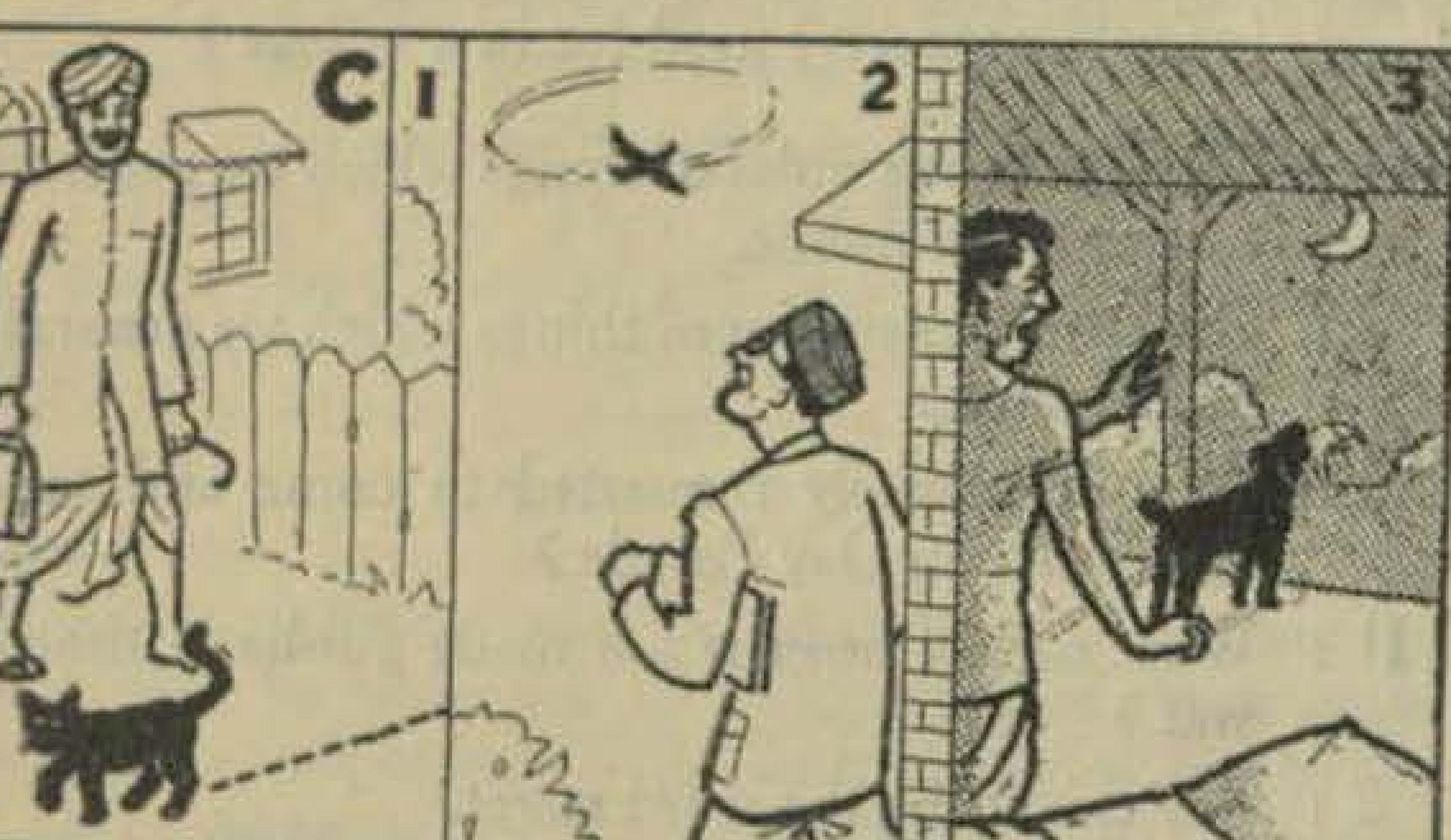
Unit 31 : Fact and Fiction

belief, fact, fiction

A. Men in all countries and in all times have had all sorts of strange beliefs. It is not possible to make a complete list of all these beliefs, because there is such a great number of them. There are, for example, beliefs about certain days, beliefs about certain animals, beliefs about certain stars and so on. Here is a selection from these beliefs, some of which may be true and others false.

Most of us in this country have a number of beliefs about journeys. We have a belief that it is good to make a start on certain days and bad to make a start on certain other days. It is bad to make a start on Tuesdays or Saturdays. If you are going north it is good to make a start on Monday. If you are going south it is good to make a start on Wednesday. Most persons have a belief that it is best to make a start on Thursdays.

B. Some of us have a belief that new moon and full moon are very bad days. A man who is ill generally becomes worse on new moon or full moon. A man who is off his head generally gives more trouble on new moon or full moon.



31

C. We have a number of beliefs about animals. In some parts of the country, for example, it is looked on as a good sign if a black cat goes across the road from left to right when you are going on some important work. Is this belief true or false? In other parts of the country it is looked on as a bad sign if a bird keeps circling over your head when you are starting out on some work. Is this belief true or false? In most parts of the country it is looked on as a bad sign if a dog keeps on giving long, high cries after midnight. The belief is that this is a sign that the death of someone or other is very near. Is this true or is it false? Is this a fact or is it a fiction?

D. Is it a fact or is it a fiction that if your birth is on a certain day you will be happy, but that if it is on a certain other day you will be unhappy? Is it a fact or is it a fiction that if your mother gives birth to you when a certain star is in the sky you will be well-off but that if a certain other star is in the sky you will be poor?

E. A number of men today have no belief in these things. They have no belief in certain days being good and certain other days being bad. They have no belief in certain signs being good and certain other signs being bad. They have no belief in certain stars being good and certain other stars being bad. They say that most of these beliefs are false; they are not true. They are not facts; they are fictions.

F. When something is true we say it is a fact. When something is false we say it is a fiction. Fictions are generally stranger than facts, and so they are more interesting than facts. That is why there is a good market for fiction (stories); and that is why fiction writers make a great amount of money. But sometimes facts are stranger than fiction. Here is an account of something which took place about a hundred years back in Hyderabad, something which seems to make it clear that facts are sometimes stranger than fiction.



31

G. In Bhadrachal there was a man named Ramdas. He was an officer in the King's Government. It was his duty to get together the money from the farmers when they made their payments at the end of the year, and to send it to the King. But Ramdas was a very strange man. He was a sadhu who was living in a temple most of the time, saying his prayers. He was a very good man and never did anyone any wrong. He was so kind that when he got the money he did not send it to the King but made a distribution of it to the poor who were living in the villages. The King became very angry when he got news about what Ramdas was doing with the money. The King sent for him, and when he came the King put him in prison as a punishment. The men who were looking after the prison were very cruel. They gave Ramdas blows with a whip; they put nails into his body; his hands and legs were stretched and twisted; he was kicked in the back and in the stomach. After some time the men were ordered to give Ramdas poison. They got poison from somewhere, put it in a cup and made Ramdas take it. But while Ramdas was drinking the poison it was changed into milk. This may seem untrue. But it is said to be a fact, not a fiction. While Ramdas was putting the cup back on the table a man came running from the King and said, to everyone's surprise, that the King had given orders that Ramdas was to be made free.

H. Ramdas was taken before the King, who was very pleased to see that Ramdas was still living. The King then gave Ramdas an account of what had taken place the night before, while he was sleeping. He said that while he was in a deep sleep it seemed to him that two men came into his room with two bags full of money. When they were questioned they gave their names as Ram Singh and Lakshman Singh. They said that they were brothers and that they had come to give the King the money which Ramdas was to have given to him. Having said this the men suddenly went out of view. When the King got up in the morning he was surprised to see the two bags on his table near the bed. The King went on to say, "You are a great man, Ramdas. I will see that no-one gives you any more trouble. You are free. Go back to your house and put up a temple on the top of the hill of Bhadrachala. To make certain that the temple has enough money my Government will make a fixed payment to the temple every year." And so he sent Ramdas away. The King kept his word, and to this day the Hyderabad Government has been making a payment to the temple every year.

I. The payment every year is a fact; it is made in public for all to see. But was the changing of the poison into milk a fact? Or was it only a fiction? No-one is able to say.

A1 : Men have had all sorts of strange beliefs. It is not possible to make a list of all these beliefs. Why?
2 : What different sorts of beliefs are there?
3 : Are these beliefs false or true?
4 : We have a number of beliefs about journeys. Give an example.
5 : What day is bad (good) to make a start on?
6 : Which is the best day to make a start on? What is the belief of most persons?

B1 : We have certain beliefs about the moon. Give an example.
2 : What reasons are there for this belief?

C1 : What is the general belief about a black cat (bird, dog)?
2 : Are these beliefs true or false?

E1 : Have all men today a belief in these things?
2 : What have they no belief in?
3 : Why have they no belief in these things?
4 : What is another way of saying that these beliefs are not true, that they are false?

F1 : When do we say something is a fact?
2 : When do we say something is a fiction?
3 : Which is more interesting, fact or fiction?
4 : Why is fiction more interesting than fact?
5 : Why is there a good market for fiction?

G1 : What was Ramdas?
2 : Where was he living?
3 : What sort of work did he have to do?
4 : What sort of man was Ramdas?
5 : What was he doing most of the time?
6 : Why do we say he was a good man?
7 : What did he do with the money which he got from the farmers?
8 : What did the King do to him?
9 : Were the men who were looking after the prison kind or cruel to him?
10 : What did they give him blows with?
11 : What did they put into his body?
12 : What was done to his hands and legs?
13 : Where was he kicked?
14 : What were the men ordered to give Ramdas?
15 : Where did they get the poison from?
16 : What was the poison changed into while Ramdas was drinking it?
17 : Does this seem like a fact or a fiction?
18 : But what do men say?
19 : Who came running from the King after Ramdas had taken the poison?
20 : Who had given orders that Ramdas was to be made free?

H1 : Where was Ramdas taken?
2 : Why was the King pleased?
3 : What did the King give Ramdas an account of?
4 : What did the two men come into the King's room with?
5 : What were their names?
6 : Why did they come to the King?
7 : What did the men do after giving the King the money?
8 : What did the King see on his table when he got up in the morning?
9 : Where was Ramdas to put up the temple?
10 : What would the Government do for the temple?
11 : Did the King keep his word?
12 : What has the Government been doing for the temple this day?

I1 : How is the payment made?
2 : Was the changing of the poison into milk a fact or a fiction?

P1 : In 1940 there was a great increase in the number of (sepoys) in the Army.
S : Sepoys : officers, doctors, engineers, signallers, etc.

2 : Give an account of a (football match) which you have seen.
S : Football match : hockey match, etc., sports competition ; a day at a military station.

Unit 32: The Religions of India

religion, chief, church, power, existence



A. "A" Company is lined up for the Attestation Parade. This is a very important day. On this day a recruit gives his word to be loyal to the King and to do his duty. In the morning he is still only a recruit; by the time the sun goes down before night-fall he is a soldier. The C.O. is generally present at an attestation parade.

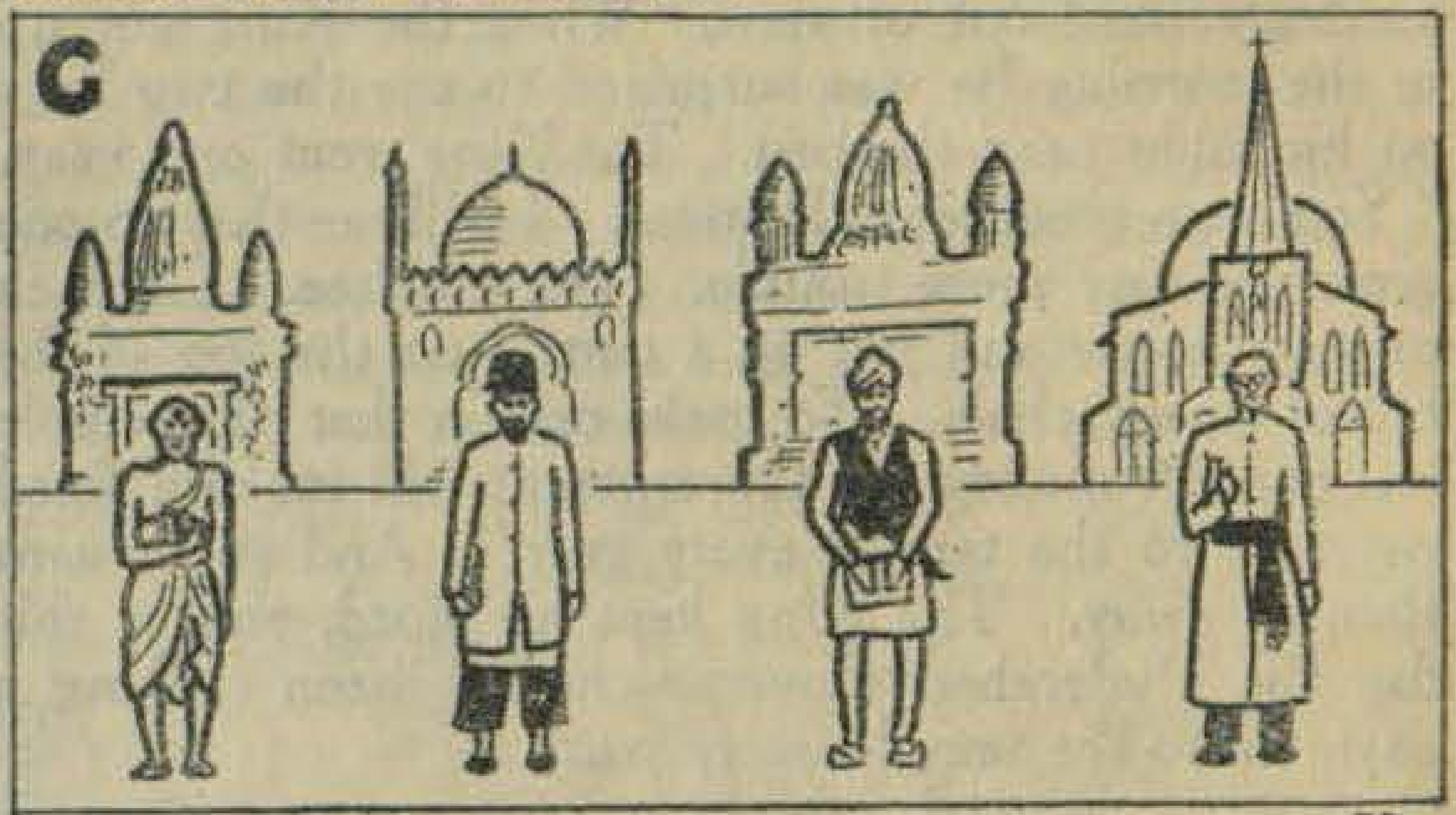
B. The company is in three groups. On the left are the Hindus. In the middle are the Muslims. On the right are the Sikhs. The sepoys will come forward, one by one, put their hands on the Bhagwat Gita, or on the Koran, or on the Granth, and give their word before a 'brahmin,' a' mullah' or a 'guru' that they will be loyal to the King and do their duty as soldiers. If the sepoy's religion is Hindu he will put his hand on the Bhagwat Gita when he gives his word. If the sepoy's religion is Islam he will put his hand on the Koran. If he is a Sikh by religion he will put his hand on the Granth.

C. There are a great number of religions on earth. There is the Hindu religion, there is the religion of the Muslims, there is the religion of the Christians, there is the religion of the Buddhists, there is the religion of the Sikhs, there is the religion of the Parsis, there is the religion of the Jews, and so on. But the three most important religions on earth are the Hindu religion, the religion of the Muslims and the Christian religion.

D. There are six or seven different religions in India, but the two chief (most important) religions of India are the religion of the Hindus—Hinduism, and the religion of the Muslims—Islam. We say that Hinduism and Islam are the two chief religions of India because most persons in India are Hindus or Muslims. There are between 220 and 230 million Hindus and between 90 and 100 million Muslims in India. In the Punjab the religion of the Sikhs is very important.

E. Every religion has a book which is specially dear to the men who are of that religion. For example, the Muslim book of religion is the Koran. The Sikh book of religion is the Granth. The Christian book of religion is the Bible. The Parsi book of religion is the Khorde Avesta. The Hindus have a number of books, but the chief Hindu book of religion is the Vedas.

F. Every religion has a number of places which are specially dear to the men who are of that religion. For example, Mecca is very dear to the Muslims, Amritsar is very dear to the Sikhs, Bethlehem in Palestine is very dear to the Christians, and Jerusalem is very dear to the Jews. Hindus have a number of places in India which are very dear to them. Chief among these places are Benares in the north and Rameshwaram in the south.



G. Every religion has a number of places in which the men say their prayers. These are houses of religion. The temple is the Hindu house of religion. The mosque is the Muslim house of religion; the Gurudwara is the Sikh house of religion; and the church is the Christian house of religion. The temple, the mosque, the gurudwara and the church are all public buildings to which men may go to say their prayers.

H. Hindus, Muslims, Sikhs and Christians put on different sorts of dress, they go to different places to say their prayers, they say their prayers in a different way, their books of prayer are different. Another way of saying this is that the forms of Hinduism, Islam, Sikhism or Christianity are different.

I. The forms of religion may be different, but the most important teachings of all religions are the same. All religions say that there is one great God, who made the sun and the moon, the earth and the stars. He is the Father of all men, and so all men are brothers. And because all men are brothers they have to be good and kind to one another. These are the two most important teachings of all religions. That is why it is foolish for Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs to keep on fighting with one another, because they are of different religions. One of the chief duties of a soldier in the Army is to make certain that he never does or says anything which may give pain to a man of another religion.

J. All religions say that there is a God. He made the earth and the sky, the sun and the moon. Anyone who is able to make such things as the earth or the sky or the sun or the moon has great power. We say that God has complete power over all things, living or dead. There is nothing which he is not able to do. He has the power to make the sun come up. He has the

power to make the sun go down. He has the power to keep the sun fixed in any position in the sky. He has complete power over the sun. He has complete power not only over the sun but over every other thing as well, living or dead. He has the power to make a man come to birth. He has the power to send a man to his destruction. He has the power to make a man come to an early death. He has the power to make a man go on living for years and years.

K. Another way of saying that there is such a being as God is: God has existence. Anything which is has existence. Anything which we are able to see or put our hands on or have knowledge about has existence. You and I have existence. The tables and the seats in your room have existence. The earth and the sky have existence. They are all there; we are able to see them, we are able to put our hands on them, we are able to have knowledge about them. All these things have existence.

L. Was there ever a time when there were no such things as the earth or the sun or the stars? When did the earth come into existence? It probably came into existence millions and millions of years back. Which came into existence first, the earth or the sun? Some say they came into existence at the same time. Others say the sun came into existence first and the earth came into existence later. How did the earth and the sun, the moon and the stars come into existence? No-one has certain knowledge of how they came into existence; it is simply a question of belief.

M. How long have men been living on this earth? How long have men been in existence on this earth? It is probable that men have been in existence for about fifty thousand years. But other living things like plants and animals have probably been in existence for five hundred million years.

A1: What is "A" company lined up for?
2: Why is this an important day?
3: When does a recruit become a soldier?
4: Who is generally present at an Attestation Parade?

B1: Who are on the left (in the middle, right)?
2: Before whom will the sepoys give their word to be loyal to the King?
3: What will they put their hands on while giving their word?
4: If the sepoy's religion is the Hindu religion (Islam) what will he put his hand on?
5: If he is a Sikh by religion where will he put his hand?

C1: What different religions are there on the earth?
2: What are the three most important religions on the earth?

D1: What is the number of religions in India?
2: What are the two chief religions?
3: Why do you say that Hinduism and Islam are the two chief religions?
4: What is the number of Hindus (Muslims) in India?
5: What religion is very important in the Punjab?

E1: What is the Muslim (Sikh, Christian, Parsi) book of religion?
2: What is the chief Hindu book of religion?

F1: Which place is very dear to the (Muslims, Sikhs, Christians, Jews)?
2: Have Hindus any places which are specially dear to them?
3: Which are the two chief places?

G1: What name do you give a Hindu (Muslim, Sikh, Christian) place of religion?
2: Are these private buildings or public buildings?

H1: Do Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs put on the same sort of dress (go to the same place to say their prayers, etc.)?
2: What is another way of saying this?

I1: The chief teachings of all religions are the same. What is one thing which all religions say?
2: Who is the Father of all men?
3: What is another thing which all religions say?
4: Why have all men to be good and kind to one another?
5: What is one of the chief duties of a soldier in the Army?

J1: Who made the earth, the sky, the sun and the moon?
2: Who has power over all things, living and dead?
3: Why do we say He has complete power over all things, living or dead?
4: What power has he over the sun (a man)?

K1: What is another way of saying that there is such a being as God?
2: What has existence?
3: Give examples of things which have existence.
4: Why do we say that the seats and tables in the room have existence?

L1: When did the earth come into existence?
2: Which came into existence first, the earth or the sun?
3: How did the earth, the sun, the moon and the stars come into existence?

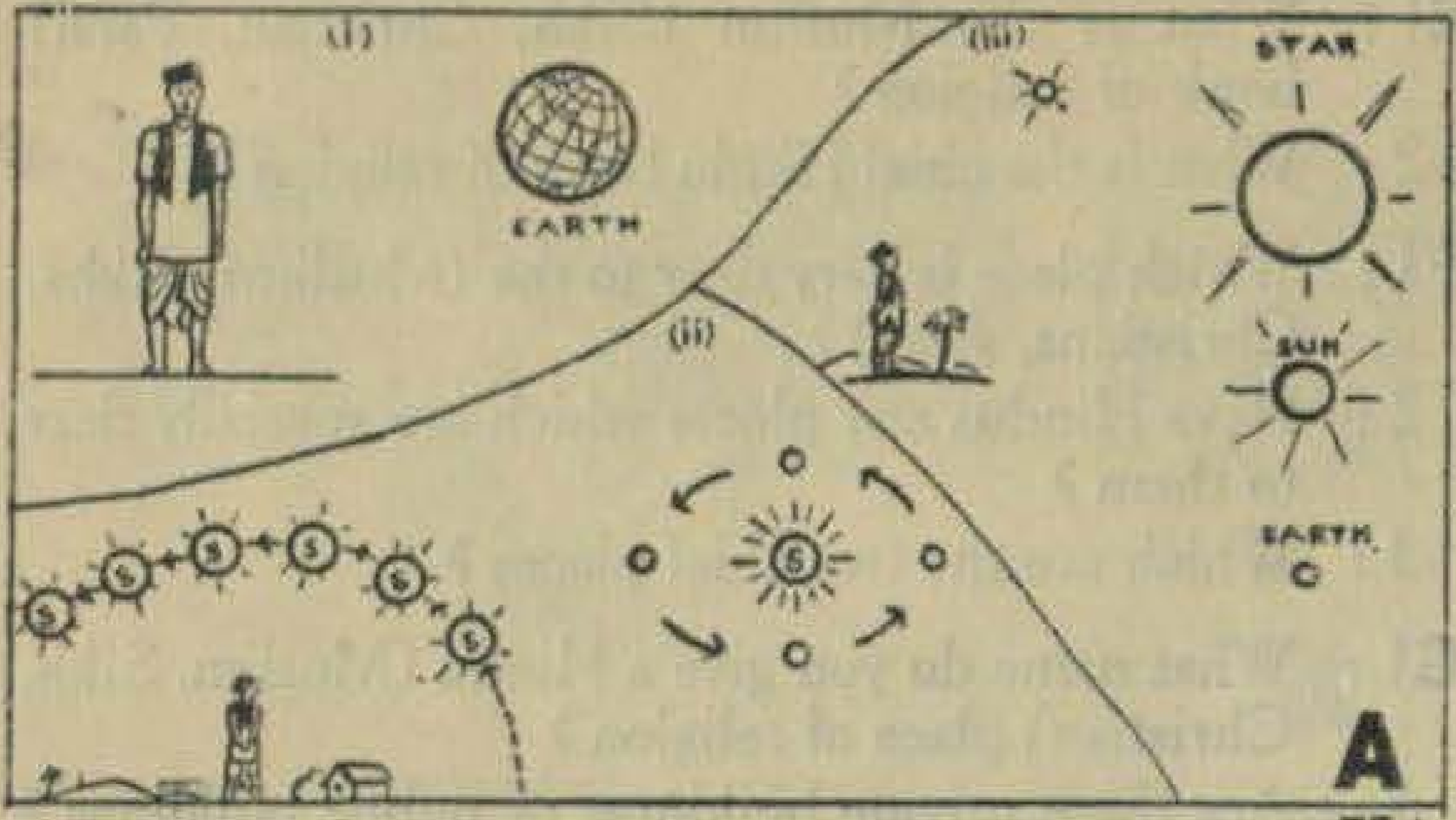
M1: How long have men been in existence on this earth?
2: How long have other living things like plants and animals been in existence?

P: Has an (N.C.O.) the power to give you a punishment?

S: N.C.O.: V.C.O., etc.

Unit 33 : Some Strange Ideas

idea



A. We men have all sorts of ideas (pictures in our heads) about men and things. Some of these ideas are true ; others are false. For example, men in early days had an idea that the earth was flat. We are now certain that this idea was false, that the earth is not flat but round. How did the early men get the idea that the earth was flat ? The earth seemed flat to them. So they said that the earth was in fact flat. Again, these men had an idea that the sun went round the earth. We now have no doubts that this idea is false, that the sun does not go round the earth but that the earth goes round the sun. What gave these early men the idea that the sun goes round the earth ? The sun seemed to go round the earth, and so they said the sun did in fact go round the earth. To give still another example, these men had an idea that the sun was smaller than the earth and that the stars in the sky are smaller still. We are now certain that this idea is false, that the earth is smaller than the sun and that the sun is smaller than the stars. How did these early men get the idea that the sun is smaller than the earth and that the stars are smaller than the sun ? The sun seemed smaller than the earth, and the stars seemed smaller than the sun. And so they said that the sun is in fact smaller than the earth, and that the stars are in fact smaller than the sun. In the same way a great number of ideas which we all have today will be seen, by the men of the future, to be completely false.

B. Civilians have all sorts of ideas about men in the Army. For example, they have an idea that soldiers have very little work to do in peacetime and that most of their time is given up to playing games. This idea is false. Soldiers have as much work to do as civilians have, and they have as hard a time as civilians have in their fields, factories and offices. But what gives civilians the idea that soldiers have very little work to do and that they have a very happy time in camp and station ? Civilians see soldiers going about dressed in all sorts of beautiful uniforms ; they see them in cafes drinking and laughing all the time, making sport of someone or other ; they see that soldiers have money in their pockets and go after all sorts of pleasures. It is this which gives civilians the idea that soldiers have no cares or troubles and that they have very little work to do.

C. Most civilians have very little knowledge about war or fighting. For example civilians have no idea how long it takes to make a recruit a good soldier. They have no idea how long it takes to send a division from one place to another. They have no idea what amounts and different sorts of material are needed to keep a division of twenty thousand men fighting in the field for only a week. And most of them have no idea at all of what fighting is in fact like.

D. Maybe you are one of those who are going home in a short time. Have you any ideas about what you are going to do after 'demobilization' ? Probably most of you have very clear ideas about what you are going to do. For example, it is possible that some of you have an idea of working on the land ; others have an idea of opening a store in a town or village ; still others have an idea of living in a town and working in a factory. Whatever your ideas may be the Army will make an attempt to give you a certain amount of training and every possible help and support.

A1 : What are ideas ?
2 : Are all our ideas about men and things true ?
3 : What idea did early men have about the form of the earth ?
4 : Is this idea false or true ?
5 : How did early men get the idea that the earth is flat ?
6 : What idea did they have about the motion of the sun and the earth ?
7 : Is this idea true or false ?
8 : Why do you say that the idea is false ?
9 : What gave these early men the idea that the sun goes round the earth ?
10 : What idea did they have about the size of the earth, the sun and the stars ?
11 : Is this idea true or false ?
12 : Why do you say it is false ?
13 : How did these men get the idea that the sun is smaller than the earth ?

B1 : Give one example of a false idea which civilians have about soldiers.
2 : Is this idea true or false ?
3 : What gives civilians the idea that soldiers have very little work to do ?

C1 : Have civilians a good knowledge about war or fighting ?
2 : Why do you say civilians have very little knowledge about war or fighting ?

D1 : Have you any ideas about what you are going to do after 'demobilization'?

2 : What different ideas may soldiers have about what they are going to do after demobilization?

3 : Who will make an attempt to give you every possible help and support?

P1 : Is my (pen) private property or public property?

S : Pen : pencil, book, rubber, stick, umbrella, house, field, farm, garden.

2 : Is a railway station a private building or a public building?

S : Railway station : post-office, telegraph office.

3 : Do women in India put (powder) on their (faces) in public as women in England do?

S : Powder, faces : paint, lips.

4 : The news that (Ram Singh) (has got promotion) has not been made public ; it is still a secret.

S : Has got promotion : is to be given a medal ; is to be sent away ; that there is to be an increase in pay ; that we are to be given a gratuity, a bonus, etc.

5 : There will be a meeting of the (village panchayat) tomorrow, but the meeting will not be open to the public.

S : Village panchayat : Soldiers' Board.

6 : Some of our records are very important. I have put them in a secret (bag) of which no-one has any knowledge.

S : Bag : box, place.

7 : (How much) (money) he has in the bank is a secret.

S : Money : gold, silver, what ornaments.

8 : I have a belief that (men have better brains than women). I am certain about it.

S : Men have etc. : boys have better brains than girls ; vegetables are a better food than meat or fish ; uncooked food is better than cooked food ; fruit is better than rice or wheat ; long walks are better than games.

9 : It is my belief that in future wars (rifles) will be of no use.

S : Rifles : tanks, artillery, warships, submarines, etc.

10 : I have no belief in the existence of (houris).

S : Houris : angels, devils, spirits, etc.

11 : (What you say) is false ; I have no belief in what you say.

S : What you say : your story.

12 : It is a fact that (I have taken money from him).

S : I have taken etc. : I have debts, I am ill, I am married, I have no money in the bank, I took twenty prisoners in the last war, I have got a medal, I gave him some money last night.

13 : What did you do (in) (his house)? Give me all the facts.

S : His house : the garden ; the hotel ; the recreation room ; on the hockey field ; last night ; on Sunday.

14 : The fact that (we were one thousand strong) put fear into the heart of the enemy.

S : We were etc. : We had fifty tanks, artillery, a hundred bombers.

15 : Is it a fact or is it a fiction that there was such a king in India as (Rama) years back?

S : Rama : Krishna, Duryodhana, Yudhisthira, etc.

16 : What is the chief food of (South Indians)?

S : South Indians : North Indians, the English, the Japanese, etc.

17 : Who is the chief officer of a (section)?

S : Section : platoon, company, battalion, etc. squadron, etc.

18 : What is the chief town of (India)?

S : India : England, France, Germany, America, Russia, Japan.

19 : What powers has a (military policeman)?

S : Military policeman : V.C.O., lieutenant, etc.

20 : What makes a (railway engine) go?

S : Railway engine : steamship, motor car, tank, airplane, tram car.

21 : Some soldiers have no idea what a (warship) is like.

S : Warship : submarine, destroyer, aircraft carrier, etc.

22 : Please give me an idea of what a man's (brain) is like.

S : Brain : heart, stomach, throat.

23 : How did the sergeant get the idea that my (English) was very bad?

S : English : Urdu, map-reading, shooting, signalling.

24 : I have no idea why my friend has gone to the (post-office).

S : Post-office : railway station, public garden, C.O.'s office, M.I. room, sergeant.

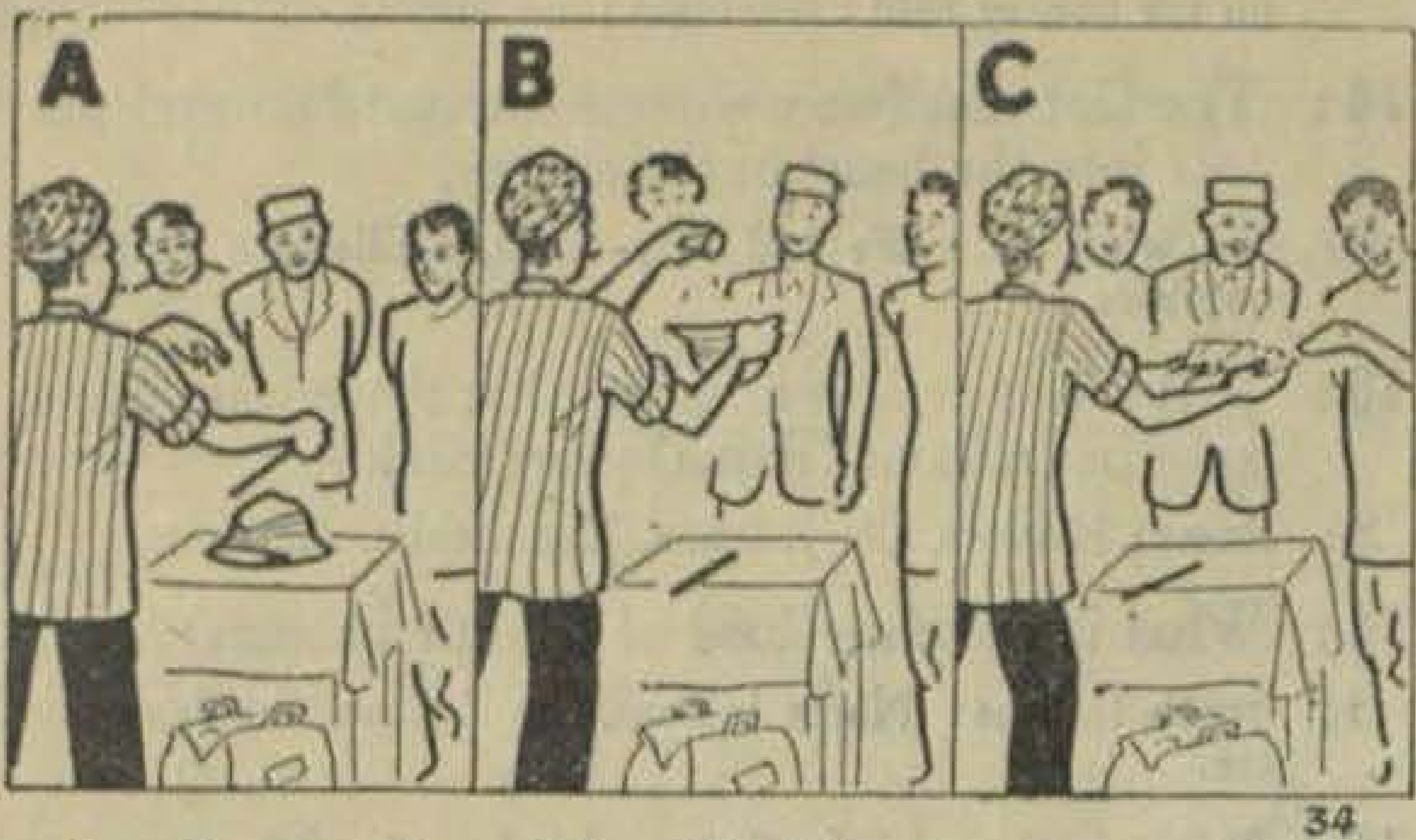
Seatwork

Put the right word in the spaces :

1. Who..............................you the idea that I am very well off?
2. How did you..............................the idea that he was in the Army?
3. I had an idea..............................he was a very good man.
4. He has an idea..............................putting some money into the bank this month.
5. My idea is..............................take a job in a mill when I go out of the Army.
6. You have no idea..........................what a journey in an airplane is like.

Unit 34: A Magician's Tricks

trick, expert, stiff



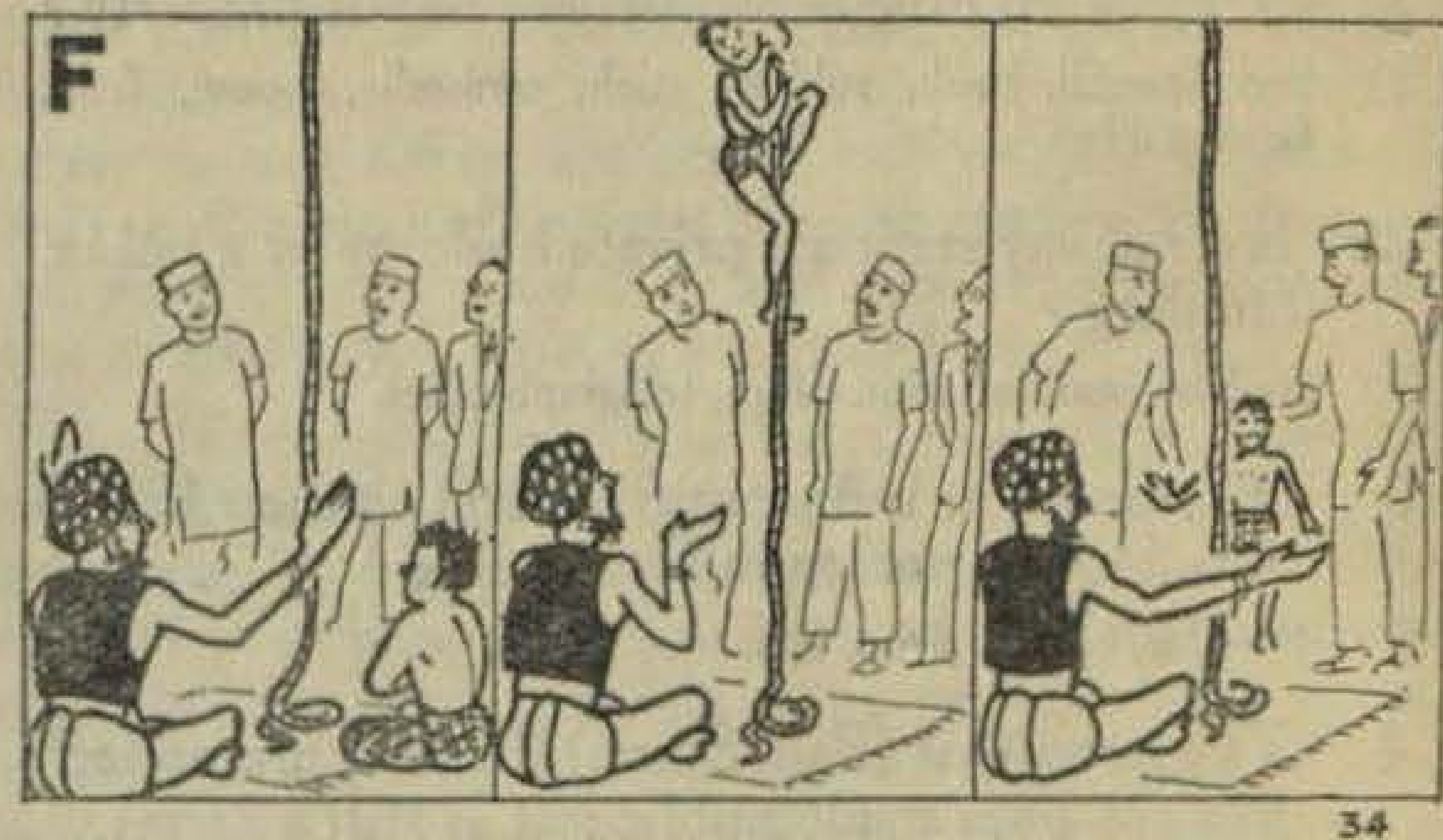
A. A street 'magician' is doing a number of tricks with a hat and some balls. He puts down ball; then he puts his hat over the ball; then taking a stick in his hand he makes a sign over the hat with the stick. When the hat is taken off there is not one ball under the hat but three!

B. That is a very common trick. But it is not the only sort of trick which he does. Here is another. He takes his hat round and lets everyone put his hand into the hat to make certain that there is nothing in it. After everyone is certain that there is nothing in the hat he himself puts his hand into the hat and takes an egg out of it. Everyone is surprised. That is another very common trick.

C. There are a number of tricks with playing-cards which give the men and women who are looking on much amusement. For example, one of the men is requested to take a card out of the group and after taking a good look at the card to put it back in the group. The man does so. The cards are mixed up again in front of everybody. The magician then goes through all the cards and puts his finger on the very card which the man has taken out. Again everyone is surprised at the trick.

D. How does the man do these tricks? Is he able, for example, to make one ball into three, or to get an egg out of a hat in which there is nothing at all? He is not able to do this any more than you or I. He puts the other two balls under the hat so secretly and so quickly that you do not see him doing it. He is very good at doing things quickly with his hands. He is so good in the use of his hands that when he puts his hand into a hat in which there is nothing you do not see the egg which is in his hand. All magicians are experts in the use of their hands and fingers.

E. When a person is very good at something or other we say he is an expert in it, or that he is very expert in it. If you are very good at map-reading we say you are an expert in map-reading. If you are very good at shooting you are an expert in shooting. If you are very good at signalling you are an expert in signalling. An army has a number of different sorts of experts. It has, for example, tank experts, men who have a good knowledge of tanks; weather experts, men who have a good knowledge of the different sorts of weather and how they are caused; medical experts, men who have a good knowledge of the cause of diseases and so on. An army has to have a great number of such experts because without their help it would not be possible for an army to go on fighting.



F. Here another magician is doing a trick with a bit of rope, which is a sort of long thick cord. This is such a surprising trick that a great number of persons outside India say that it is not possible, and that in fact it has never been done, only talked about. The magician takes one end of the rope in his hand and with a quick motion sends the other end high up into the air. Does it come down again? No. It keeps up, fixed, like the stem of a tree coming up from the earth.

G. This is a most surprising thing, because as a rule it is not possible to keep a cord upright in the air. A cord is not stiff like a stick or the stem of a tree. It is not possible to keep things which are not stiff upright in the air. A pencil, a pen, and a bit of thick cardboard are examples of things which are stiff. Cord, thread, cloth and thin paper are examples of things which are not stiff.

H. Having got the rope going straight up in the air the magician makes a small boy get up the rope, using his hands and feet as if it was a tree. When the boy gets to the top of the rope the magician says some strange words and suddenly the boy goes out of view. There is great surprise among the onlookers. Where has the boy gone? But before anyone is able to give an answer to the question the magician says some more strange words and then the boy's name in a loud voice. Straightaway an answer comes from among the onlookers saying, "Here I am, father; I am coming in a minute." And out comes the boy with a smile on his face.

I. Is this true? Does all this in fact take place? It does not. It is a trick. What seems to the onlookers to be taking place does not in fact take place. The magician is so expert in his work that the onlookers are tricked into seeing things which have no existence.

J. There are a number of ways of tricking an enemy in war. All soldiers are given a good knowledge of some of these military tricks. A very common way of

tricking an enemy is by placing a number of 'dummy' guns in a certain position. Dummy guns are not guns at all. They are made of wood but they are made to seem like guns made of steel. Another very common trick is to keep on firing the same machine-gun from a number of different positions. The enemy, seeing machine-gun fire coming from a number of directions, is tricked into the belief that there is not one machine-gun but three or four machine-guns. Still another common way of tricking the enemy is to have a number of tin-hats resting on bayonets in such a way that only the hats are seen. This gives the enemy the idea that there are a great number of soldiers, when in fact the number of soldiers is very small.

A1 : Who is this ?
2 : What is he doing ?
3 : What is one trick which he does ?

B1 : Is that a common trick ?
2 : What is another trick which he does ?

C1 : Why are these men and women looking on while he is doing his card-tricks ?
2 : What is one of the group requested to do ?
3 : What is done to the cards ?
4 : What does the magician do then ?

D1 : Is the man able to make one ball into three (get an egg etc.) ?
2 : Who puts the balls under the hat then ?
3 : Why don't you see him doing it ?
4 : How good is he in the use of his hands ?
5 : What are all magicians expert in ?

E1 : When a person is very good at something or other what do we say of him ?
2 : What do we say if you are very good at map-reading (shooting, signalling) ?
3 : What different sorts of experts has an army ?
4 : What is a tank (weather, medical) expert ?
5 : Why has an army to have a great number of such experts ?

F1 : What is this magician doing a trick with ?
2 : What is a rope ?
3 : What is sometimes said about this trick ?
4 : What does the magician take in his hand ?
5 : How does he send the other end high up in the air ?
6 : Does it come down again ?
7 : What is it like when it keeps up, fixed ?

G1 : Why is this a surprising thing ?
2 : Why is it not possible to keep a rope upright in the air ?
3 : Give examples of some things which are stiff.
4 : Give some examples of things which are not stiff.

H1 : Having got the rope fixed in the air what does the magician do ?
2 : How does the boy get up the rope ?
3 : When does the magician say strange words ?
4 : What takes place when the magician says the words ?
5 : What is the effect on the onlookers ?
6 : What does the magician do after that ?
7 : Where does the answer come from ?
8 : What is the answer ?

I1 : Does all this in fact take place ?
2 : What is it then ?
3 : How are the onlookers tricked ?

J1 : What sort of knowledge are all soldiers given ?
2 : What is one common way of tricking an enemy ?
3 : What are dummy guns ?
4 : What are they made of ?
5 : What is another common trick ?
6 : How is the enemy tricked ?
7 : What is a third way of tricking an enemy ?
8 : What idea does this trick give the enemy ?

P1 : My friend's dog is able to do a number of tricks. It is able to (get across a stick with a jump).
S : Get across etc. : get up on its back legs, take a tennis ball from one place to another, etc.

2 : The Army is sometimes tricked by contractors. Most of the (potatoes) which the contractor sent us yesterday were bad.
S : Potatoes : eggs, tomatoes, vegetables, etc.

3 : I was tricked into taking an old (coat) yesterday. The storeman said it was new, but later I saw that it was an old one.
S : Coat : shirt, hat, umbrella, watch, etc.

4 : My friend has a disease of the (skin). Yesterday I took him to an expert in skin diseases.
S : Skin : eye, ear, throat, chest, heart, stomach.

5 : He is very expert in the use of (his) (fingers).
S : Fingers : hands, a sword, a kukri, a kirpan.

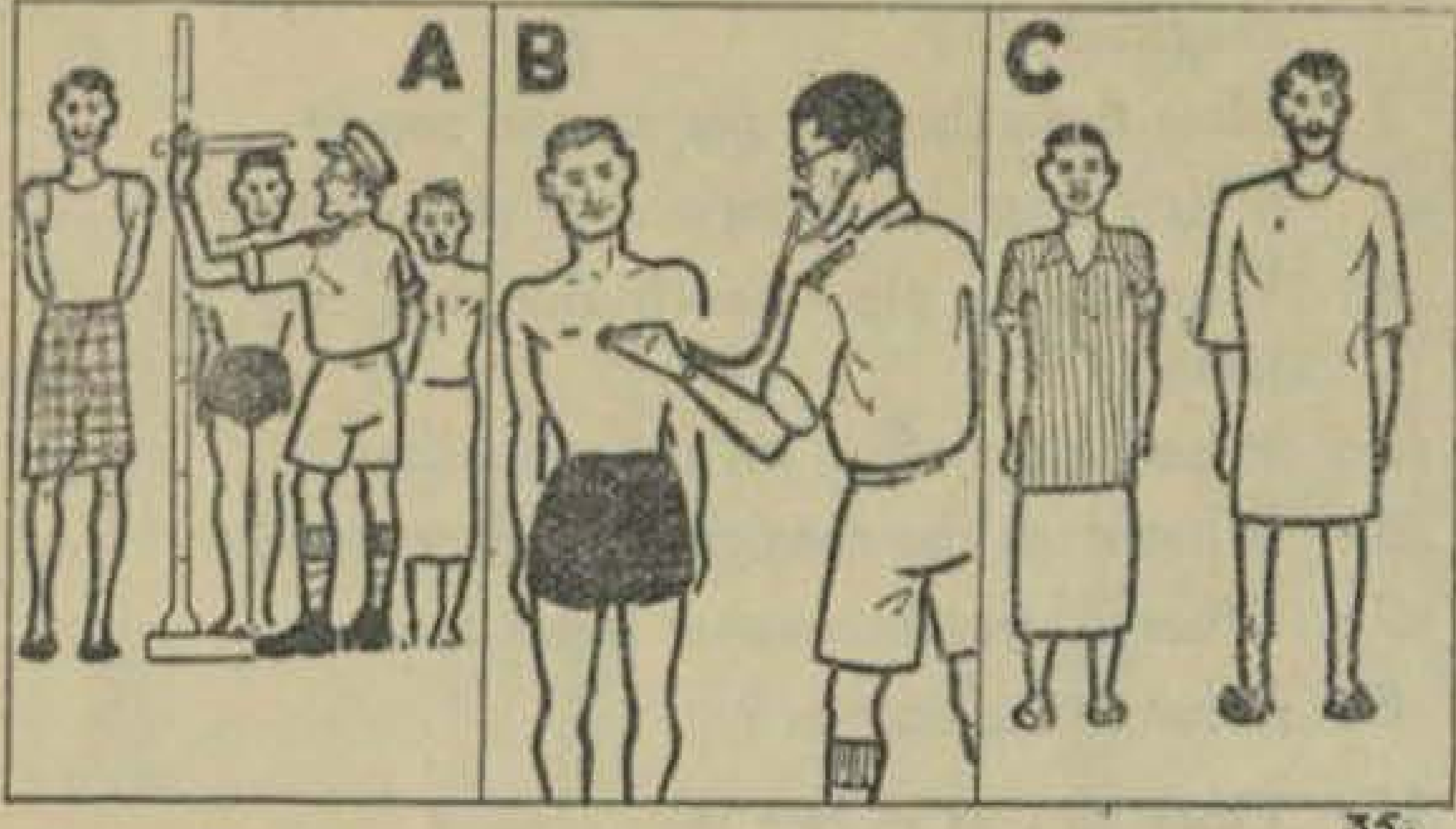
6 : He is an expert (washerman).
S : Washerman : cook, gardener, driver, teacher.

7 : Why do we say that a (footrule) is stiff ?
S : Footrule : rod, bit of chalk, key.

8 : Is a (bit of thread) stiff ?
S : Bit of thread : blade of grass, bit of paper, leaf.

Unit 35 : An Ex-Soldier At Home

normal, humour, delicate, disgust



A. The Army is taking in a number of recruits. The doctor is measuring a recruit to see how tall he is. The recruit is five feet six inches tall. That is about normal. A man who is over six feet tall is very tall. A man who is under five feet tall is very short. A man who is five feet six inches tall is normal. Most Indians are an inch or two over or under five feet six inches tall. That is why we say that an Indian who is five feet six inches is normal. Another way of saying that most Indians are about five feet six inches tall is to say that a normal Indian is about five feet six inches tall.

B. The doctor is now testing the recruit's heart. After hearing the sounds for some time the doctor will be able to say if the recruit has a strong heart or a feeble heart or a normal heart. If the recruit has a feeble heart the doctor will not let him be taken into the Army. But if the recruit has a normal heart he will let him be taken.

C. The medical examination is over. Here are two men who were tested by the doctor. Is it possible to say by looking at the men where they come from? Yes, it is possible. The man on the left comes from Madras and the man on the right comes from the Punjab. The man on the left seems like most of the Madrassis whom we have seen. He seems like a normal Madrassi. The man on the right seems like most of the Punjabis whom we have seen. He seems like a normal Punjabi.

D. The man on the left has on the normal dress of a Madrassi. What is the normal dress of a Madrassi? The normal dress of a Madrassi is a lungi, covering the lower part of his body, and a shirt. The man on the right has on the normal dress of a Punjabi. What is the normal dress of a Punjabi? It is a pair of tight pyjama trousers and a long shirt.

E. This recruit is at a store. He is making a selection from a box of socks. The recruit and the storeman are very angry with one another; they are having an argument. The two men are in a very bad humour.



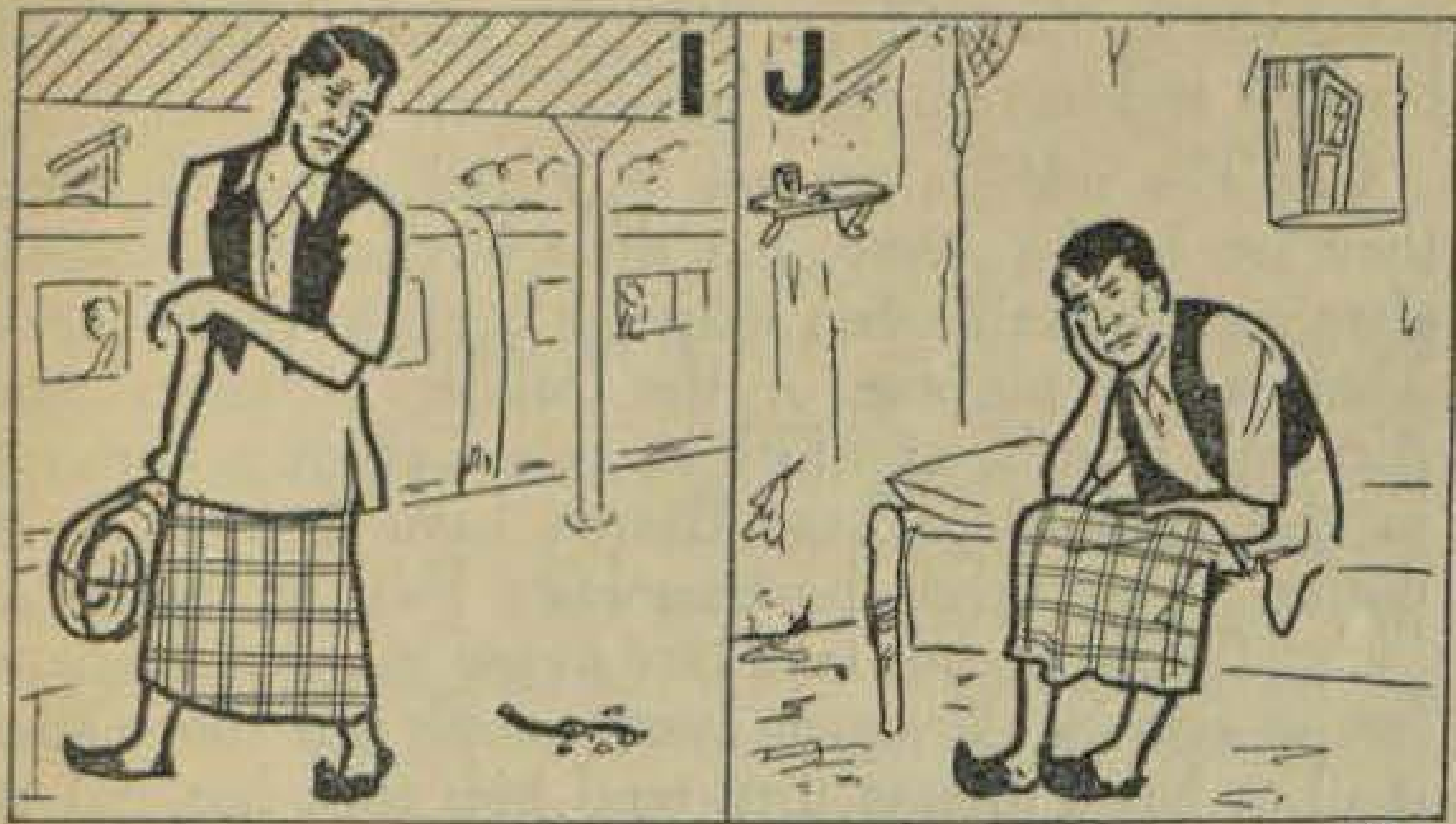
They are talking to one another very loudly and using very bad language. Why are the two men in a bad humour? The storeman is in a bad humour because the recruit said that though the quality of the socks was very bad the price of the socks was very high. This put the storeman in a bad humour. The storeman then said that if the quality of the socks was poor and the price high the recruit was free to go to another store. This put the recruit in a bad humour. He got very angry and said that he was not there to take orders from the storeman.

F. The storeman and the recruit are no longer angry with one another. They are, in fact, smiling at one another. They are in a very good humour. What put the recruit in a good humour? The storeman said that it was possible that the recruit was new to the place and that he had no idea that prices were still increasing. This put the recruit in a good humour. The recruit then said that what the storeman said was true, that he was new to the place and that he had no idea that prices were still increasing. The two men are now in a very good humour. The recruit is saying that he is ready to give the market-price.

G. There are certain times when we are generally in a bad humour. When we are very tired, or something goes wrong, or we are ill, we are generally in a bad humour. Almost anything makes us angry then. But when everything goes right and we are very happy we are in a good humour. We keep smiling all the time. If a man is generally smiling or laughing we say he is very good-humoured. If a man is the sort who gets angry very quickly we say he is very bad-humoured or very ill-humoured.

H. There is another sense in which the word *humour* is used. When someone is able to keep you laughing by what he says or does or by the way he makes sport of other persons, we say of such a man that he has humour in him or that he is full of humour.

I. Umesh got off the train only ten minutes back. He is looking at his watch. It is not on his arm; it is on the station platform—in bits. He got that watch in Cairo six months back for twenty-five rupees. He took great care of it all the time he was in the Army, but now there it is in front of him, completely broken.



35

It came off while he was walking across the platform. A watch is readily broken ; it is very delicate. If a delicate thing is dropped on the floor it will get completely broken. Examples of delicate things are glasses, thermometers, electric bulbs. Umesh's watch was so delicate that the glass of the watch was smashed and the works inside were broken as well. Umesh is in a very bad humour.

J. Umesh has been at home for three months now. He is not very pleased with what he has seen in his house, in the village or on the farm. Take a good look at his face ; there is a look of disgust on it. He is saying to himself that if things are not changed he will not be able to go on living in the village much longer. The villagers, men and women, give him a feeling of disgust ; they are generally dirty, though it is possible to keep themselves clean without much trouble. The village houses give him a feeling of disgust ; most of them are small, dark and unhealthy, though it is quite possible to have rooms of greater size and to put one or two windows in the walls. He is disgusted by the sort of existence which he sees round him.

A1 : Whom is the doctor measuring ?
2 : What is the doctor measuring ?
3 : How tall is the recruit ?
4 : Is the recruit very tall (short) ?
5 : Is the recruit normal ?
6 : What would you say about a man who is over six feet tall ?
7 : What would you say about a man who is under five feet tall ?
8 : What sort of man would you say is normal ?
9 : Why do we say that an Indian who is five feet six inches tall is normal ?
10 : What is another way of saying that most Indians are five feet six inches tall ?

B1 : What is the doctor now testing ?
2 : How will the doctor be able to say if a recruit has a strong heart, a feeble heart or a normal heart ?
3 : What sort of recruit will he let the Army take ?

C1 : Where does the man on the left (right) come from ?
2 : What does the man on the left seem like ?
3 : What is a shorter way of saying this ?
4 : What does the man on the right seem like ?
5 : What is a shorter way of saying this ?

D1 : Which of the two men has the normal dress of a Madrassi ?
2 : What is the normal dress of a Madrassi ?
3 : Which of the two men has the normal dress of a Punjabi ?
4 : What is the normal dress of a Punjabi ?

E1 : Why has the recruit come to this store ?
2 : What sort of humour are the two men in ?
3 : Why do you say that they are in a bad humour ?
4 : Why is the storeman (recruit) in a bad humour ?

F1 : Are the storeman and the recruit in a bad humour now ?
2 : Why do you say that they are in a good humour ?
3 : What put the recruit in a good humour ?

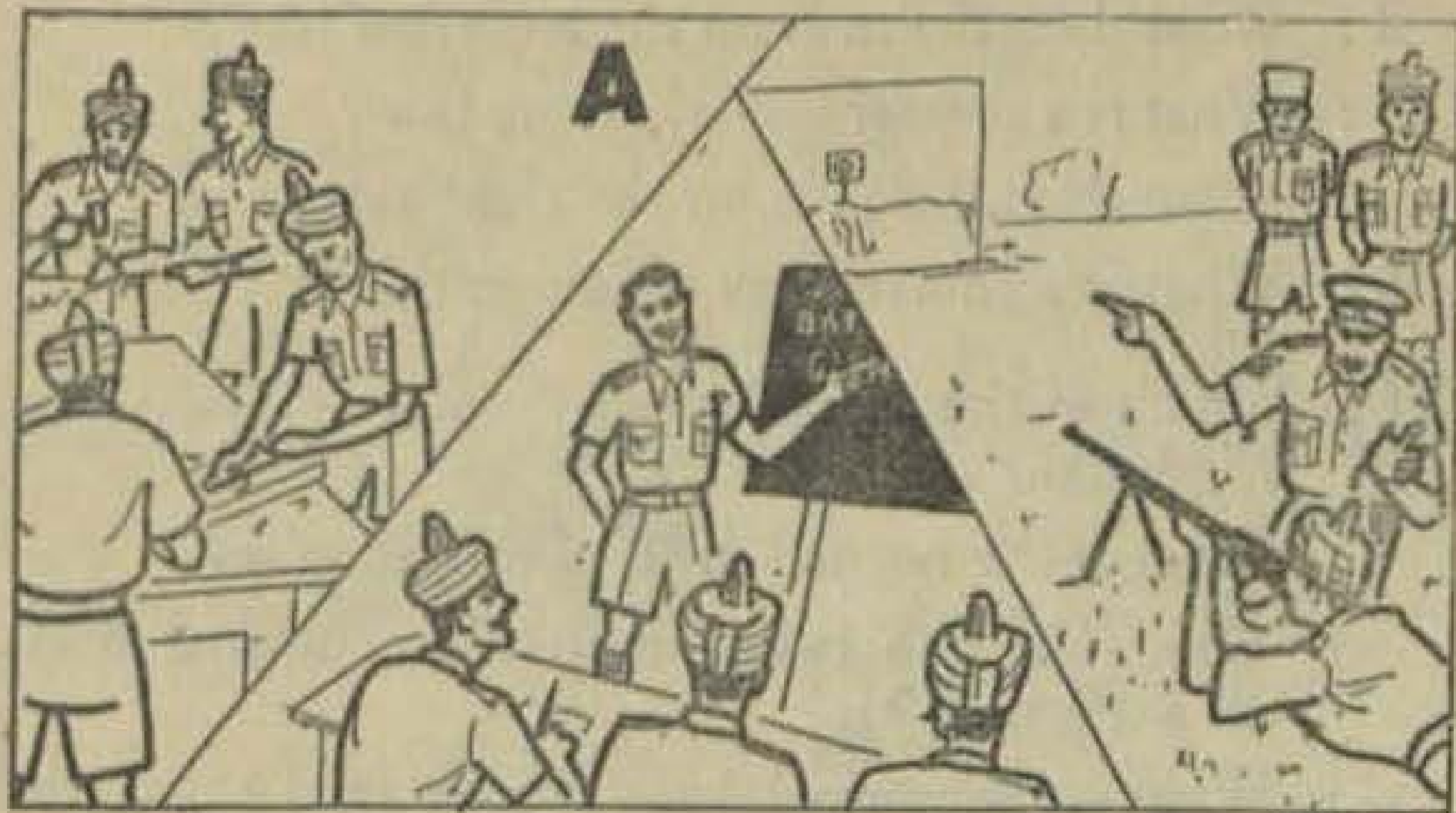
G1 : When are we generally in a bad (good) humour ?
2 : What do we do when we are in a good humour ?
3 : What sort of man is a good-humoured (ill-humoured) man ?

I1 : When did Umesh get off the train ?
2 : What is he looking at ?
3 : Where is the watch ?
4 : Where did Umesh get the watch ?
5 : What was the price of the watch ?
6 : Why is the watch of no use to him any more ?
7 : When did it come off ?
8 : Why is a watch readily broken ?
9 : What sort of thing is readily broken if it is dropped on the floor ?
10 : Give some examples of delicate things.

J1 : How long has Umesh been at home now ?
2 : Is he pleased with what he has seen in his house (village, farm) ?
3 : What sort of look is there on his face ?
4 : What is he saying to himself ?
5 : Why do the villagers (village houses) give him a feeling of disgust ?
6 : Why is he disgusted with the sort of existence which he sees round him ?

Unit 36 : Soldiers' Boards

purpose, committee, secretary, note



36

A. Here are pictures of peace-time instruction in the Army. A soldier's time in the Army is never wasted. He is learning something or other all the time. The most important parts of his training are weapon-training, Urdu, map-reading and sometimes English. Now why is a knowledge of English given to certain soldiers ? What is the purpose of giving any soldier a knowledge of English ? The purpose is quite clear. It is to make it possible for him to do all his talking and writing in English when it is necessary. What is the purpose of giving him a knowledge of Urdu ? Urdu is the common language of those from North India, and the purpose of giving a soldier a knowledge of Urdu is to make it possible for him to get on, in work and play, with men coming from different parts of India. What is the purpose of giving him a knowledge of map-reading ? While doing his work a soldier has sometimes to get the position of a river or a field or a bridge or a building. The purpose of teaching him map-reading is to make it possible for him to get the position of a place by reading his map. In other words the purpose of all peace-time instruction is to make a man a better soldier, to make it possible for a man to get on in the Army, to go up and up, for a sepoy to become an N.C.O., for an N.C.O. to become a V.C.O. and for a V.C.O. to become a King's commissioned officer.

B. While the war was going on soldiers in the Indian Army were given a special sort of instruction. There were talks and discussions on questions like how to do farming, how to take care of animals, how to do gardening, how to make houses, roads and drains, and so on. This was not at all. The sepoys were taken round factories, demonstration farms and other places of interest. They were given special instruction in woodwork or leather-work or basket-making and other trades. Even now that the war is over all this instruction is still going on. Has the Army a purpose in giving this instruction ? Yes. The purpose in giving this instruction is to make it clear to the soldiers how, when they are released and go back to their villages, the produce of their farms may be increased and how existence in the villages may be made happier and brighter and more interesting.

C. The soldiers are not only well cared for while they are in the Army, but their interests are looked after equally well when they get back to the villages. That is the purpose of the Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Boards, of which there are about a hundred in this country. These Boards have a number of duties. They give the ex-soldier help in getting a 'job' (work) ; they take care to see that the soldier's family gets its allowance every month ; if the soldier is ill or has a disease they send him to a hospital or give him medical help. If his family is in trouble while he is away they give the family every possible help and support.

D. A Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Board is a Committee (small group) of ten men. The Deputy Commissioner of the District is generally the president of the Committee. The Committee has a secretary, who is an old Indian officer.



36

E. A meeting of a Soldiers' Board is taking place. The men who are on the Board are seated round the table, with the President at the head. At the left side of the table is the secretary of the Board. This man has been secretary now for five years, and he is very good at his work. A secretary has a number of duties : he has to get things ready for the meeting ; he has to keep a record of all the meetings ; he has to take care of all the business and to send all the letters. A secretary's work is so important that he has to be in his office most of the time.

F. There is much business to be done today. There are about twenty requests from different persons to which attention has to be given. For example, there is a request for money from a soldier's family who are in great need. There is a letter from an ex-soldier requesting the Committee to be kind enough to give him a training as a civilian motor-mechanic. There is a letter from a soldier's wife (the woman to whom he is married) saying that she has a boy to be sent to school but she has no idea where to send him. And so on. The Committee will go into these questions one after another.

G. One of the men who is on the Committee is ill, and he has sent a note (a short letter) to the President

to say that it is not possible for him to come to the meeting. The President is reading the note. After reading the note he will give it to the secretary, who will put it in one of the drawers of his table.

H. The Committee is now doing some business. One of the men is on his feet and is giving his opinion about one of the letters which has been sent to the Committee. While the man is talking the secretary is making a note, in a book, of what he is saying. That is part of the secretary's work. He does not make a note of everything which everyone says. He makes a note of only the most important things which are said at the meeting.

I. Soldiers' Boards have been formed to give soldiers and their families help. If ever you are in trouble send a letter to the secretary of your Board saying what is wrong and in what way the Board may be of help to you.

A1 : What are these pictures of ?

2 : Why do we say that a soldier's time in the Army is never wasted ?

3 : What are the four most important parts of a soldier's training ?

4 : What is the purpose of giving a soldier a knowledge of English (Urdu, map-reading) ?

5 : What is the purpose, in other words, of all peace-time instruction ?

B1 : On what different questions were soldiers given talks while the war was going on ?

2 : What were the soldiers taken to see ?

3 : What were they given special instruction in ?

4 : Has the Army a purpose in giving this sort of instruction ?

5 : What is the purpose in giving this sort of instruction ?

C1 : What is the purpose of Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Boards ?

2 : What's the number of these Boards in the country ?

3 : What duties have these Boards ?

D1 : Is a Soldiers' Board a small group of men or a great group of men ?

2 : What is another way of saying that it is a small group ?

3 : Who is generally the president (secretary) of the Committee ?

E1 : What is taking place here ?

2 : Who are seated round the table ?

3 : Where is the president (secretary) ?

4 : How long has this man been the secretary ?

5 : What different duties has a secretary ?

6 : Why has a secretary to be in his office most of the time ?

F1 : What is the business to be done today ?

2 : What is the request made by a soldier's family ?

3 : What is in the letter from the ex-soldier ?

4 : What does the letter from a soldier's wife say ?

G1 : One of the men who is on the Committee is ill, What has he sent to the President ?

2 : What does the note say ?

3 : Who is reading the note ?

4 : To whom will he give the note after reading it ?

5 : Where will the secretary put the note ?

H1 : What is the Committee doing now ?

2 : Why is one of the men on his feet ?

3 : What is the secretary doing while the man is talking ?

4 : Where is the secretary making his notes ?

5 : Does the secretary make a note of everything which is said ?

I1 : Why have Soldiers' Boards been formed ?

2 : What will you do if ever you are in trouble ?

P1 : What is the normal food of a (Madrassi) ?

S : Madrassi, Bengali, Punjabi, etc.

2 : This (belt) is of normal size—not very long or very short.

S : Belt : knife, spade, sword.

3 : (Rain) (is) normal in the monsoon.

S : Rain : thunder, lightning, clouded skies, strong winds.

4 : My (friend) is in a good humour because (the meal was very good).

S : Friend : father, mother, brother, sister.
The meal was very good : his chief was pleased with his work today ; father is going to get her a new sari ; father has given him money to go to the pictures ; mother is going to get her a new ornament.

5 : My friend is in a bad humour because (the sergeant was angry with him today).

S : The sergeant etc. : the sergeant gave him a punishment, he has a pain in his tooth, he is not going to get any leave.

6 : His (coat) (is) so dirty that it gives me a feeling of disgust.

S : Coat : shirt, hat, shorts, trousers, shoes, boots.

7 : I am disgusted with that recruit. I have been teaching him (the English letters) for two weeks. But it is of no use.

S : The English letters etc. : the Urdu letters, map-reading, the names of the parts of the rifle, signalling signs, etc.

8 : What is the purpose of playing (football) ?

S : Football : hockey, tennis, etc.

9 : What is your purpose in sending your (boy) to school ?

S : Boy : girl.

Unit 37 : The Story of Midas

touch, desire, jewel, regret



A

37

A. There are four pictures here. The man in the pictures is a king. In the first picture he is putting his right hand on the stem of a tree ; he is giving the tree a touch with his right hand. He is touching the tree with his right hand. In the second picture he is putting his hand on a branch of the tree. He is giving the branch a touch with his hand. He is touching the branch with his hand. In the third picture he is touching a leaf and in the fourth picture he is touching a flower.

B. Why has the king been touching the stem of the tree, the branch, the leaf and the flower ? This king is a very strange man ; he has the surprising power of changing anything which is touched by him into gold. It may be a tree, or a bit of stone, or a drop of water, or a leather-band, or a chain of iron—it may be any sort of material. But the minute it is touched by this man it is changed into gold then and there.

C. While he is touching the tree and the branch and the leaf and the flower he is saying to himself, " The more gold I have the happier I will be." He has a great desire for gold. In fact there is no end to his desire for gold. The more gold he has, the greater is his desire for still more gold. Who is this man ? What is his story ? We will come to that later, but first let us be certain about the sense of this new word *desire*.

D. We all have desires for the things which we are certain will give us pleasure or make us happy. We all have a desire to be strong and healthy. We all have a desire to be well-off. Most men have a desire to get married and make a home for themselves. But different men have different desires. In some the desire for money and gold is greater than the desire for any other thing. A great number of such men come to an unhappy end. The story of the man in the picture is an example of a man who, through his desire for gold, almost came to a very unhappy end.

E. He was a great king and his name was Midas. He was ruler over five million persons. He had only one desire—to get together gold, more gold, and still more gold. Every time he got into bed he would say to himself, " If only I had the power of changing every substance into gold by touching it. How much more gold I would have ! How much happier I would be !

F. One night, while he was saying this again to himself, a god suddenly came into view in the form of a man. " I see something is troubling you," said the god. " You are not quite happy. What is your desire ? I am a god ; I have the power of giving whatever is desired by man." Going down on his knees the king said, " O god, I am unhappy because I haven't enough gold. Give me the power of changing everything into gold by touching it, and I am certain I will be completely happy."

G. But the god seemed to have doubts about it. " Are you quite certain that the power of changing everything into gold by touching it will make you happy ? It might make you unhappy. If it makes you unhappy, you will have a feeling of regret that you made me give you the power of changing things into gold. So make certain that this power will not make you unhappy in the end." " I am quite certain about it, O god," the king said. " I will have no regrets for making you give me the power of changing things into gold by touching them. I will have no regrets about it." " Right ! " said the god, " if you are quite certain that you will have no regrets later I will do it." And putting his hand on the king's head the god said, " From tomorrow morning you will have the power of changing all things into gold by touching them."

H. When the sun came up the king went straight into his garden and put his hand on the stem of a tree. One touch of his hand and the wood was suddenly changed into gold, and the stem seemed like a thick rod of gold coming up out of the earth.

I. There was no doubt about it ; the king did have the power of changing things into gold by touching them. He went round the garden touching every plant and every tree and they were all changed into gold. The king was very very happy. He gave a loud cry of pleasure. " Now I will have more gold than any man, and I will be completely happy," he said to himself.

J. The time came for his meal. He went and took his seat at the table. The servant came and put a plate full of cooked grain, a basin of fruit and a glass of water on the table. The king had had no food for a long time. He had a great desire for food. Putting out his hand he took a berry out of the basin. The berry was round, red and full of a sweet liquid. But when he put his hand on it it was changed into gold. Now gold is not a food, and so the king put it back into the basin. He took another berry, one which was even redder than the first, and quickly put it into his mouth. But it was of no use. The berry in his mouth was no longer a soft, sweet, fruit ; it was only a hard ball of yellow gold. And now a feeling of regret was coming over the king ; for the first time the idea came

into his head that after all he had not been very wise in making the god give him the power of changing things into gold.

K. When he got up from his seat he saw his daughter running up to him. She was a beautiful little girl, seven or eight years old, and was very dear to him, dearer to him than anyone. When he saw her coming up to him he gave a smile of pleasure. "Good morning," said the daughter and put her little arms round his neck. The minute she did so she was changed into gold. The king took a step back in great surprise. He was looking not at the living body of his daughter but at a dead mass of yellow gold. By now the king was crying openly.

L. When the god saw how unhappy the king was he came down to earth with a bottle of a certain liquid in his hand and put some of it on the little girl's head. And straightaway the mass of gold was changed back into a living girl. The girl gave a smile, put out her hand and said something to the king. When the king saw that his daughter was living again he became very happy. Turning to the god he said, "I was very foolish. Please take this power of the 'gold touch' from me, so that I may go on living with my daughter as happily as before." Then the god put his hand on the king's head and said, "May the power of the 'gold touch' go from you. It is quite clear to you now that there are things on this earth which are more important than money or gold." "Yes," said the king, now a much wiser man, "there are things on this earth which are far more important than money or gold."

A1 : What is the man in the picture ?
2 : What is he doing to the tree ?
3 : What is another way of saying this (using the word *touch*) ?
4 : What is he touching in the second picture ?
5 : What is he touching the branch with ?
6 : What is he touching in the third (fourth) picture ?

B1 : What sort of man is this king ?
2 : Why do you say he is a strange man ?
3 : What sort of things are changed into gold when he gives them a touch ?

C1 : What does he say to himself while he is touching the tree, etc. ?
2 : What has he a great desire for ?
3 : How great is his desire for gold ?

D1 : For what sort of things have we a desire ?
2 : Why have we a desire to be strong and healthy (to be well-off, to get married, to make a home) ?
3 : Different men have different desires. Give some examples.

E1 : What was the name of the king ?
2 : Why was he said to be a great king ?
3 : What was his one desire ?
4 : What would he say to himself every time he got into bed ?

F1 : What took place one night while he was saying this to himself ?
2 : What did the god come in the form of ?
3 : What power had this god ?
4 : What did he say to the king ?
5 : Why was the king unhappy ?
6 : What would make the king completely happy ?

G1 : Was the god quite certain that the power of changing things into gold would make the king happy ?
2 : What sort of feeling would the king have if it made him unhappy ?
3 : Was the king certain that he would have no regrets later if he had the power of changing things into gold ?
4 : What did the god do then ?

H1 : Where did the king go when the sun came up ?
2 : Where did he put his hand ?
3 : What was the wood changed into ?

I1 : What did the king do in the garden ?
2 : Why was the king very happy ?
3 : What did he say to himself ?

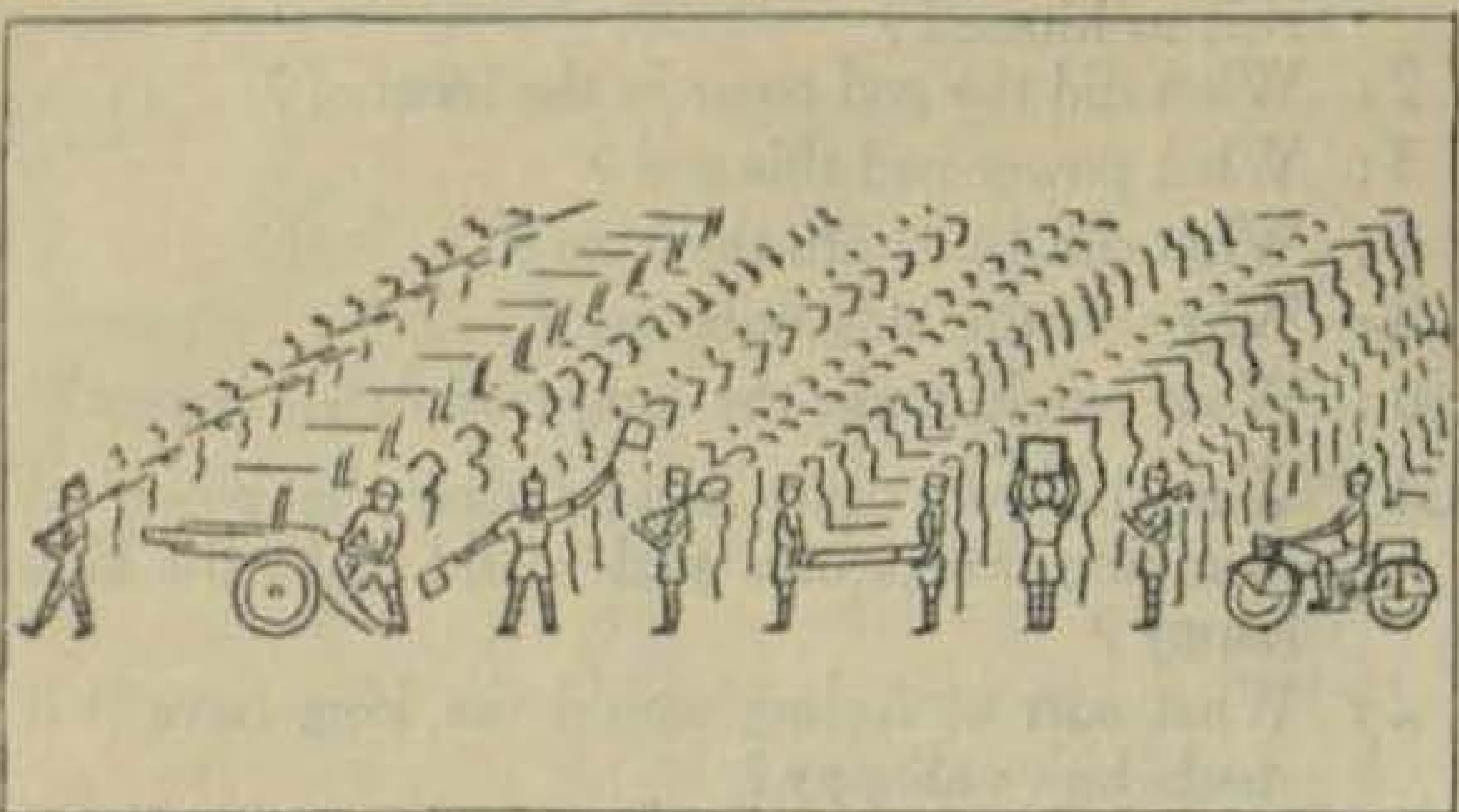
J1 : Where did he go when the time came for his meal ?
2 : What did the servant put on the table ?
3 : Why had the king a great desire for food ?
4 : What did he take out of the basin ?
5 : What sort of berry was it ?
6 : Why did the king put it back into the basin ?
7 : When was the berry changed into gold ?
8 : What did he do with the second berry ?
9 : Why was this of no use ?
10 : What sort of feeling was coming over the king ?

K1 : Whom did he see running up to him ?
2 : Was she good-looking ?
3 : How old was she ?
4 : What sort of feeling did he have for her ?
5 : What did he do when he saw her coming up to him ?
6 : What did the daughter do ?
7 : Why did the king take a step back in great surprise ?

L1 : What did the god have with him when he came down ?
2 : What did he do with the liquid in the bottle ?
3 : What was the mass of gold changed back into ?
4 : What did the girl do ?
5 : What request did the king make to the god ?
6 : Why did he make this request ?
7 : What was quite clear to the king now ?

Unit 38 : Organization of an Army

organization, responsible, authority, experience


38

A. This unit gives an account of what different branches there are in an army, what sort of work these branches do, and how they give one another help and support in battle. In other words it gives an idea of the organization of a fighting army.

B. It is clear from the picture that an army in the field has eight chief branches—infantry, artillery, signals, engineers, medical, supply, ordnance, and intelligence.

C. Now let us see what different sort of work some of these branches do. The business of the infantry is to do the fighting. When the army is on the move it is the infantry which generally goes in front to make an attack and take enemy positions and prisoners. The infantry is chiefly responsible for the fighting which has to be done.

D. The way for the infantry, however, is made smooth by the artillery, which goes on firing shell after shell into enemy positions till all their defences are completely smashed. It is the artillery which is responsible for the destruction of enemy strong points like machine-gun nests and pill-boxes.

E. The sending of 'information' from one place to another is the business of the signals. It is the signals which send messages from the artillery to the infantry, giving the infantry information about when an artillery barrage will be opened and when it will come to an end. The signals are responsible for keeping the infantry and the artillery in touch with one another.

F. The business of making roads, putting down railway lines and building bridges is in the hands of the engineers. It is the engineers who are responsible for the transport of troops and war material from one place to another.

G. The business of the medical branch is to take care of the ill and the wounded, to give first-aid or take the men to hospital. It is the medical corps which is responsible for the well-being of the men in the army.

H. The business of the ordnance branch is to put right tanks, or guns or motor vehicles which have been damaged by the enemy, so that they may be used again. It is the ordnance branch which is responsible for the upkeep of the equipment of an army.

I. The business of the intelligence is to give G.H.Q. information about what is taking place on the battle-field, and to see that the commanders in the field get the orders which are sent out by G.H.Q. It is the intelligence which is responsible for keeping the field commanders and G.H.Q. in touch with one another.

J. The business of the supply branch is to see that supplies are sent from the base to the battle-field. It is the supply branch which is responsible for the transport of food, ammunition and other war material from the base to the firing line.

K. You now have some idea of the organization of an army in the field. But what about the organization of a training centre, where recruits are trained. If you are a recruit you have to have an idea of the organization of your training centre. At the head of the training centre is the Colonel, who is responsible for the work of the centre and the well-being of the recruits. All orders from G.H.Q. to the centre are sent through the Colonel. He is the commanding officer (C.O.).

L. At the centre there will be a complete battalion of infantry or a complete regiment of cavalry. A battalion generally has four companies in it. A company generally has four platoons in it. A squadron generally has four troops in it, and a troop generally has a number of sections in it.

M. At the head of the training battalion is the Major, who is the chief training instructor. It is his business to see that all the recruits are well cared for and given the right sort of instruction. All the officers and other ranks are under him. They have to do as he says. He has authority over them. They are under his authority.

N. At the head of a company is a captain, who is helped in his work by a lieutenant and a subedar. It is the subedar who keeps the captain in touch with the men in the company. It is he who sees that they keep their equipment clean, go on parade every day and do their shooting and map-reading. The men in the company have to do as the captain says. The captain has authority over all the men in the company. They are under his authority.

O. At the head of a platoon is a jemadar, who is helped in his work by a havildar. The men in the platoon have to do as the jemadar says. He has authority over them. They are under his authority.

P. At the head of every section is a naik, who is helped in his work by a lance-naik. The naik has authority over the lance-naik and the rest of the men in his section. The lance-naik and the rest of the men in the section are under the authority of the naik.

Q. To get promotion a man has to have a certain

amount of service. Promotion is based on service. This is because the longer a man does a certain sort of work the better he is able to do it. When a man has done a certain sort of work for some time we say he has had experience of it. The longer he does the work the longer his experience. The greater a man's experience the better he will be at his work. That is why promotion is normally based on experience. There are sometimes men in the Army who have done different sorts of work—who have experience of different sorts of work. In every army there is a great need for men of experience or experienced men. The greater the number of experienced men the better the organization, and the better the organization the greater is the fighting power of the army.

A1 : What does this unit give an account of ?
  2 : What (in one word) does it give us an idea of ?

B : What are the eight chief branches of an army ?

C1 : What is the business of the infantry ?
  2 : Why do they generally go in front when an army is on the move ?
  3 : What is the infantry responsible for ?

D1 : By whom is the way for the infantry made smooth ?

K1 : What is a training centre ?
  2 : Who is at the head of the training centre ?
  3 : What is he responsible for ?
  4 : Through whom are all orders from G.H.Q. to the centre sent ?
  5 : Who is the commanding officer of the centre ?

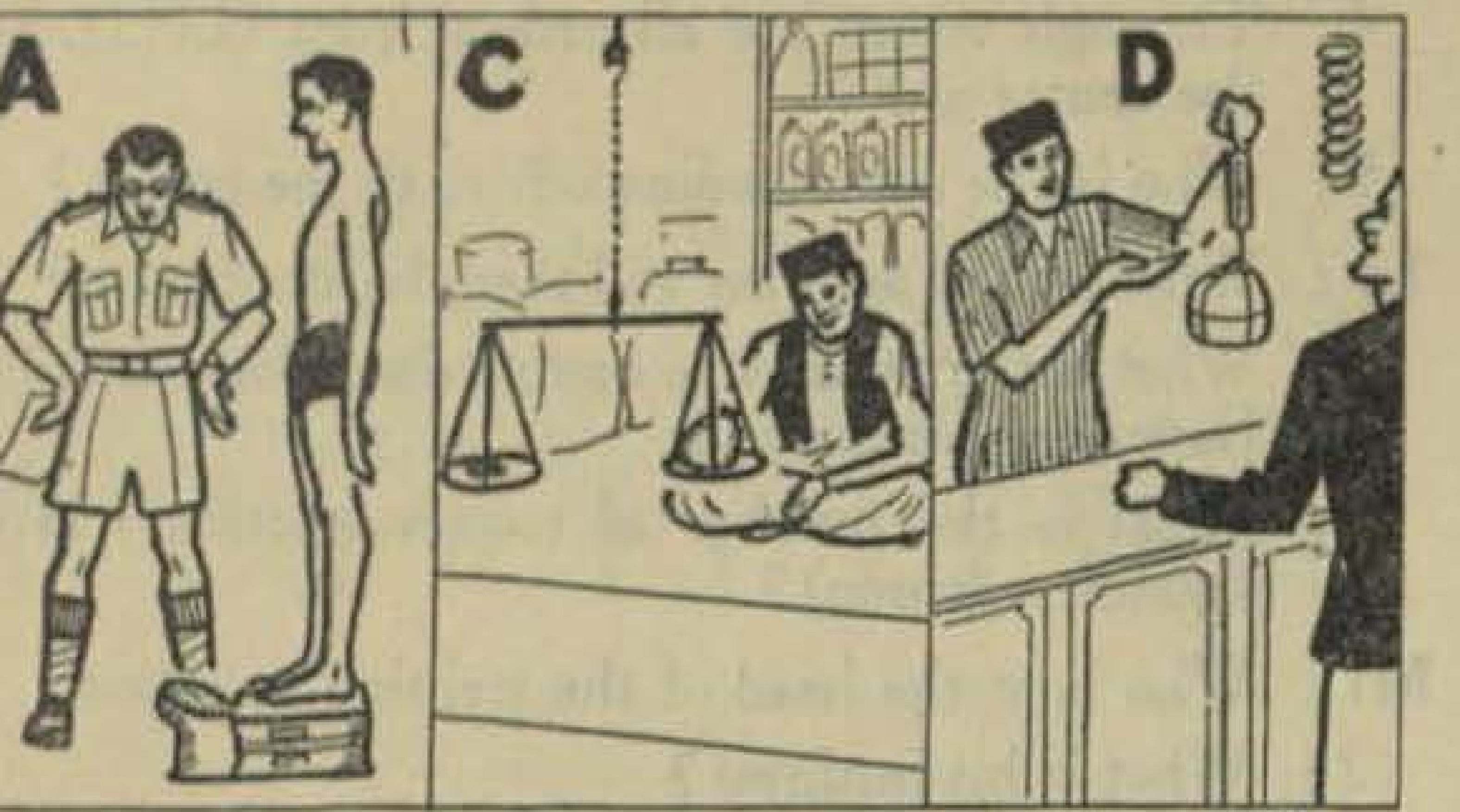
L1 : What unit of an army will there be at a centre ?
  2 : What is the number of companies (platoons) in a battalion (company) ?
  3 : What is the number of troops (sections) in a squadron (troop) ?

M1 : Who is at the head of the training battalion ?
  2 : What is his business ?
  3 : All the officers and other ranks are under him. How would you say this by using the word *authority* ?
  4 : Under whose authority are the officers and other ranks ?

N1 : Who is at the head of a company ?
  2 : By whom is he helped in his work ?
  3 : Who keeps the captain in touch with the men in the company ?

Unit 39 : Weights and Balances

weight, balance, spring



39

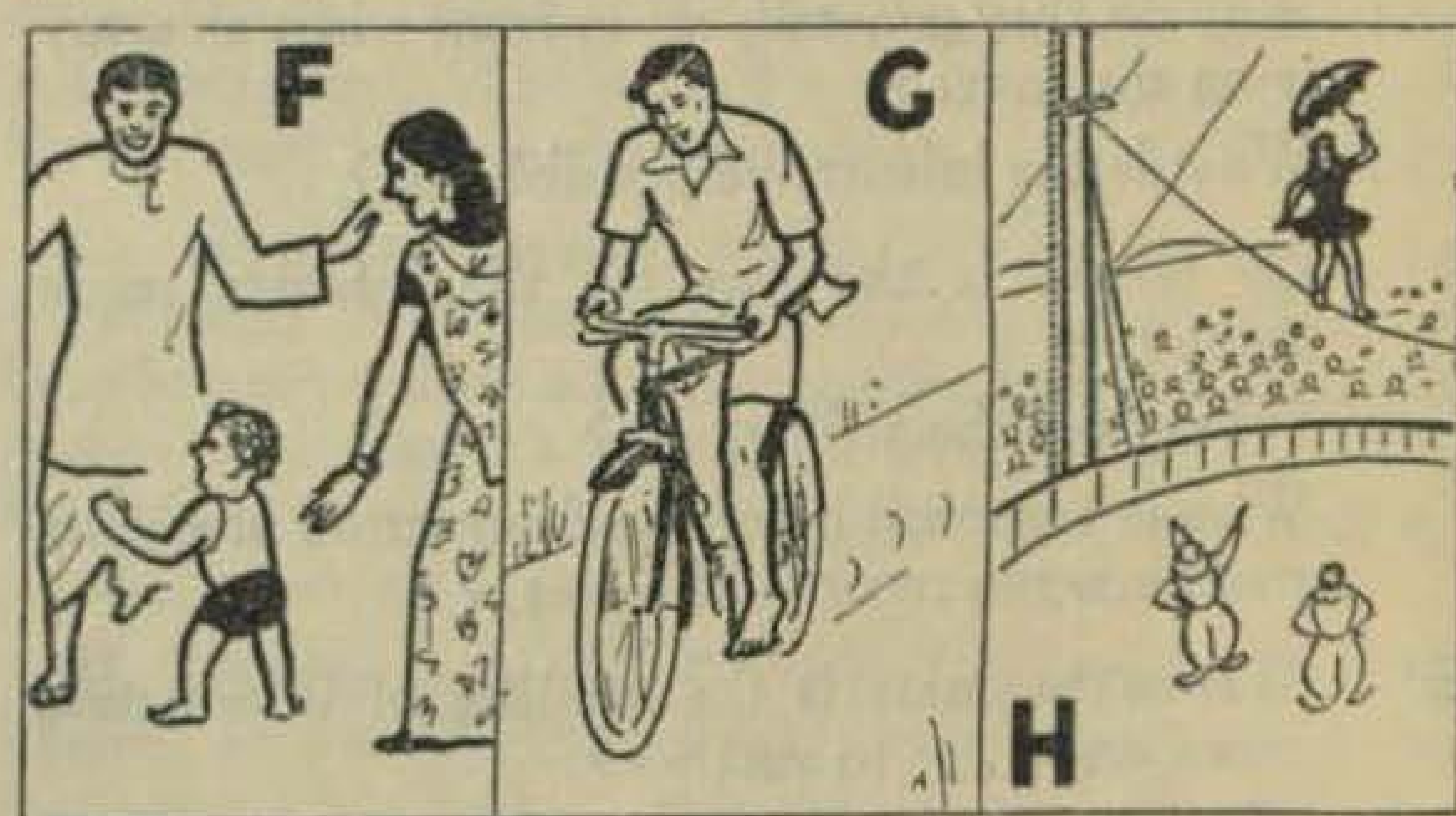
A. A doctor is testing a recruit. When testing a recruit a doctor has to take note of a number of things. He has to see how tall the recruit is ; he has to see what the recruit's weight is ; and he has to see if the recruit is strong and healthy. In the picture you see the machine which gives the weight of a man's body. The recruit has got up on the machine, and the doctor is looking at the needle which goes round a sort of clock-face on which numbers are marked. The weight is given in pounds.

B. The weight of this recruit is 155 pounds. He is 5 feet 10 inches tall. Now the normal weight of a man who is 5 feet 10 inches is 151 pounds. The weight of this recruit is four pounds more than the normal weight of a man who is 5 feet 10 inches tall. The normal weight of a man who is 5 feet 11 inches tall is one hundred and fifty-six pounds. The taller a man is the greater is his normal weight. If a man's weight is less than normal his weight has to be increased. If a man's weight is more than normal it is a sign that there is more fat on his body than is necessary. The man will then have to make his weight less by taking long walks or playing hard games or by lifting weights, which are generally round smooth balls of iron.

C. The storekeeper is seeing what the weight of the bag of sugar is. The instrument by which he is measuring the weight of the sugar is a balance. The balance is hanging from a hook in the roof. The balance is made up of an iron rod, from the two ends of which small round trays are hanging on chains. The sugar is in one of the trays. On the other tray are some iron weights. The weight on one side is equal to the weight on the other and the two trays are therefore at the same level, that is, there is a balance between them. The storekeeper is looking at the needle which is fixed to the middle of the rod. The needle is pointing straight up. This is a sign that the weight on the one side is equal to the weight on the other.

D. Here the storeman is using a different sort of balance, for getting the weight of a parcel. This is a spring-balance. At the lower end of the balance there is a hook, and the parcel whose weight the storeman is measuring is fixed to the hook. At the back of the balance there is a spring. Have a good look at the spring in the picture. A spring is only a thick wire which has been twisted round and round. When anything is put on the hook of the spring-balance the pull on the spring makes it longer, and the needle which is fixed to the spring comes down lower. This needle goes up and down a scale which is marked on the spring-balance. The storeman is looking at the needle to see where it is pointing. From the position of the needle on the scale he is able to say what the weight of the parcel is. Every division on this scale is a pound. The storeman is saying to the other man that the weight of the parcel is two and a half pounds.

E. The spring which is used for getting the weight of anything is only one sort of spring. There is a second sort of spring which is used in seats and beds. There is a third sort of spring which is used in carriages and cars. And there is a fourth sort of spring which is used in watches and clocks.



39

F. This is a baby making its first attempts at walking. The father and the mother are looking on with pleasure and surprise. The baby is walking and the father is crying, "Hurrah ! Well done ! " What is surprising about a baby walking on its feet ? The baby has to keep from falling, it has to keep its body upright. In other words, it has to keep its balance on two legs. This is a very hard thing to do. The body has to be balanced—kept from falling—and the muscles of the legs have to be trained to keep the body upright. Balancing our bodies on two legs is a trick which no living thing but man has been able to do.

G. This man is learning cycling. A man learning cycling is like a baby learning to keep upright on its legs. Like the baby learning to keep its balance on its legs the man is learning to keep his balance on the bicycle. If the man is unable to keep his balance he will come down hard on the road. When a cycle is going slowly it is hard to keep one's balance on it.

H. This woman with the umbrella is doing a balancing trick. She is walking on a tight cord thirty feet high and is keeping her balance on the cord with the help of an open umbrella. The men and women

on the floor are looking up with great surprise and some fear. If the woman is unable to keep her balance she will come down thirty feet, possibly to her death. But the woman has no fears. She has been doing the balancing trick for such a long time that she is quite certain that she is in no danger.

A1 : What is the doctor doing ?
2 : What has a doctor to take note of when testing a recruit ?
3 : What is the machine in the picture for ?
4 : Where is the recruit ?
5 : What is the doctor looking at ?
6 : What is marked on the clock face ?
7 : What is the weight given in ?

B1 : What is the weight of this recruit ?
2 : How tall is he ?
3 : What is the normal weight of a man who is five feet ten inches tall ?
4 : By how much is the weight of this recruit more than the normal weight of a man who is five feet ten inches tall ?
5 : What is the normal weight of a man who is five feet eleven inches tall ?
6 : When has a man's weight to be increased ?
7 : A man's weight is more than normal. What is this a sign of ?
8 : What will the man have to do then ?
9 : How may a man make his weight less ?

C1 : What is the store-keeper doing ?
2 : What name do we give the instrument with which he is measuring the weight of the sugar ?
3 : Where is the balance hanging from ?
4 : What is the balance made up of ?
5 : Where is the sugar ?
6 : What are on the other tray ?
7 : When do we say that the weight on the one side is equal to the weight on the other ?
8 : How would you say that the two weights are equal by using the word *balance* ?
9 : What is the store-keeper looking at ?
10 : Where is the needle pointing ?
11 : What is this a sign of ?

D1 : What is the storeman getting the weight of ?
2 : What sort of balance is this ?
3 : Where is the hook ?
4 : What is the parcel fixed to ?
5 : Where is the spring ?
6 : What is a spring ?
7 : What makes the spring longer when anything is put on the hook ?
8 : To what is the needle fixed ?
9 : Where is the scale marked ?
10 : What is the storeman looking at ?
11 : How is he able to say what the weight of the parcel is ?
12 : What is every division on this scale ?
13 : What is the weight of the parcel ?

E : One sort of spring is used for measuring weights. What is a second (third, fourth) sort of spring used for ?

F1 : What is the baby doing ?
2 : Who are looking on with pleasure and surprise ?
3 : What is the father crying ?
4 : What has the baby to do ?
5 : The baby has to keep from falling. What is another way of saying this by using the word *balance* ?
6 : Why is this a hard thing to do ?
7 : Which animal is able to do the trick of balancing its body on two legs ?

G1 : What is this man learning ?
2 : What is a man learning cycling like ?
3 : What is the man learning to keep his balance on ?
4 : If the man is unable to keep his balance what will he do ?
5 : When is it hard to keep one's balance on a cycle ?

H1 : What is the woman with the umbrella doing ?
2 : How high is the cord ?
3 : How is she attempting to keep her balance ?
4 : What are the men and women on the floor doing ?
5 : If the woman is unable to keep her balance what will she do ?
6 : Why has the woman no fears ?

P1 : (Malaria) was responsible for twenty deaths in our village last year.
S : Malaria : cholera, typhoid, etc.

2 : A (match) was responsible for yesterday's fire.
S : Match : bidi, cigarette, candle, oil-light, cracker.

3 : A (commissioner) has authority over all persons in his (district).
S : Commissioner, district : tahsildar, taluka ; patel, village ; manager, those in his office ; etc.

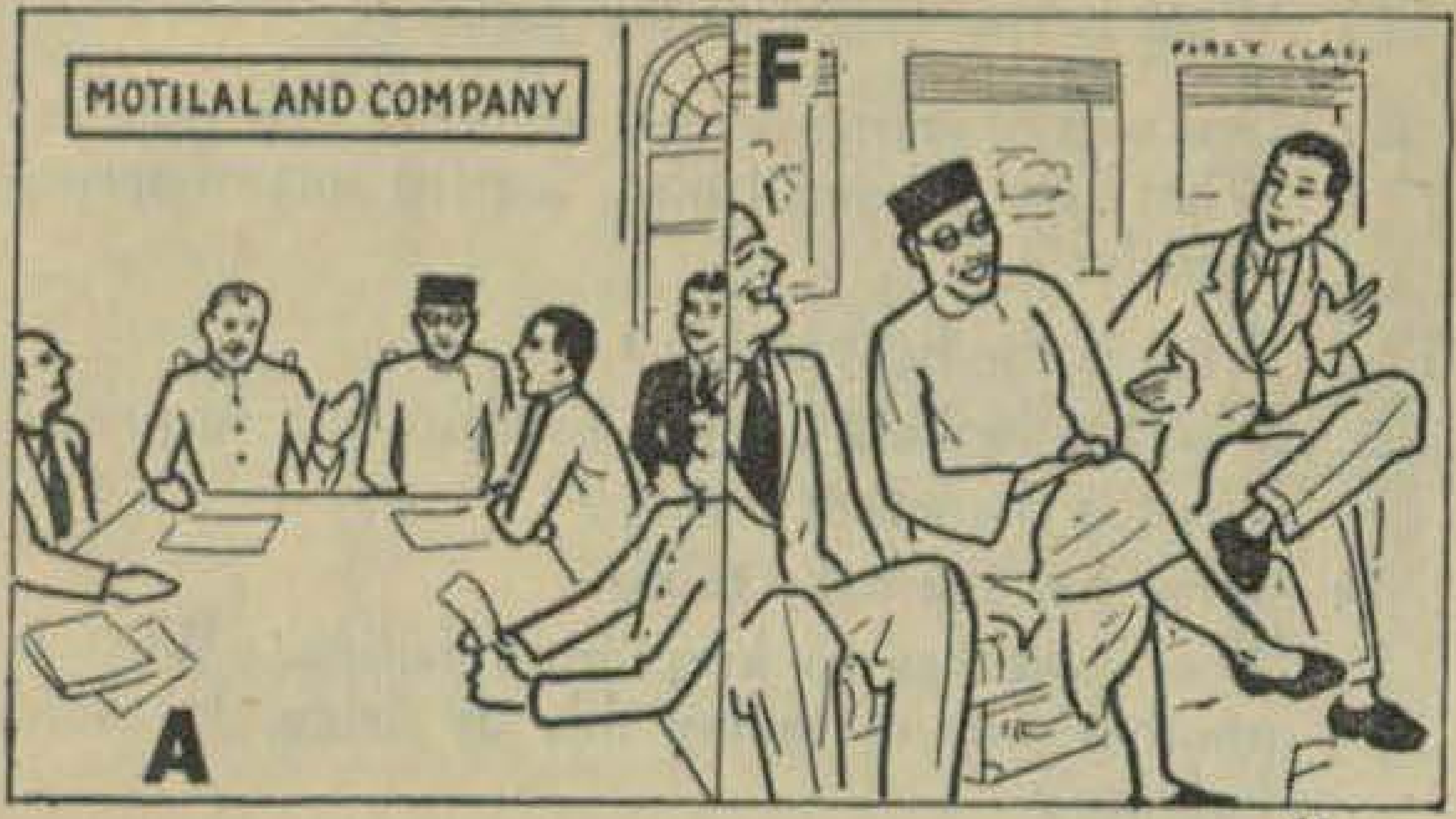
4 : I haven't done any (driving). I have no experience of driving.
S : Driving : cooking, gardening, signalling, farming.

5 : He has (ten) years' experience of work in the Army.
S : Army : Navy, Air Force, bank, coal-mine, cloth mill.

6 : Everyone in my friend's family is fat. (My friend's) weight is (190) pounds.
S : My friend's weight : his father's, his mother's, his brother's, his sister's.

Unit 40 : A Company Meeting

company, decision, manager, suggestion



40

A. The men who are seated round the table are together the owners of a mill which makes cotton thread, or 'yarn.' When a group of men are together the owners of some business we say it is a company. On the wall at the back you see the name of the company —MOTILAL AND COMPANY. It is one of the oldest companies in the town ; it was formed about twenty years back.

B. The owners of the company have meetings from time to time. There are a number of questions to which they have to give attention. The price of the yarn they make has to be fixed, changes in organization have to be made, old workers have to be sent away, new men have to be taken on. Sometimes there is trouble with the workers' organization. The workers may make a request for more pay or for shorter hours. There may be a 'strike' and work in the mill may be stopped. These are some of the questions to which the owners have to give attention. When, for example, the question of more pay for the workers comes up at the meeting the owners have to say what they are going to do about it. They have to make a decision. Sometimes the questions are not very hard. Then they won't take a long time to say what they are going to do. They will make a decision quickly. Sometimes the question may be so hard that they will be in doubt about what to do. Then they will take a long time to make a decision.

C. There are two men at the head of the table. The man on the right is not one of the owners of the company ; he is the chief servant of the company. He is the manager. The manager is the head of the organization. The company gives him authority to say what everyone in the mill has to do. This man has been manager for a long time ; he has had experience in every part of the organization. He is not only an experienced man, he is a very able man as well. That is why he is such a good manager. The man at the smaller table is the secretary. He is under the manager. He is making a note of everything which the men are saying. He keeps a record of all the meetings.

D. Today the owners are having a very important meeting. Though the manager and the men who are working with him are all very able men the company has not been making any profit for the last two years, because of the fall in the price of yarn. The price of yarn has been falling for two years, and now there is no profit ; in fact there is a great loss. No bank will give the company any credit. The debts have been increasing from day to day. Now the creditors are saying that the company has to put an end to its business and make a distribution of its property to the creditors. What is the company to do ? That is the question about which the men have to make a decision.

E. The men are looking very sad. They are in doubt about what to do. Everyone is against the idea of putting an end to the business. They all say that the business has to go on. But how ? That is the question. One man said that some of the workers might be sent away. Another man made the suggestion that the workers' pay might be cut down still more. A third man made the suggestion that the mill might be moved into a smaller building. A fourth man made a suggestion not to put any more advertisements in the newspapers, because advertisements took up a great amount of money. These were some of the suggestions which were put forward at the meeting. The manager's opinion was that it would be cruel to send men away or to make another cut in their pay. Did he have any other suggestion to make ? Yes, he had. His suggestion was that an attempt might be made to get money from another bank, a bank which had been newly started. It was possible that this bank would give them the use of some money on interest for a time. When the manager made this last suggestion everyone got up and said that that was the wisest suggestion of all. The manager was then given authority to make a strong request to the new bank for one lakh of rupees, and the meeting came to the decision not to send any of the workers away or to make a cut in their pay.

F. The manager is going to Bombay to see the owners of the new bank. He is in a first-class railway compartment and there are three other men with him. All the three men are his friends ; they are going to Bombay together. The manager will not be by himself ; he will have company all the way. The journey will be interesting and time will go quickly. When he went to Bombay last time there were no friends in his compartment ; he was by himself. He had no company. The journey was very uninteresting and the time went slowly. The man who is on the manager's left is full of humour. He keeps the other men laughing all the time. Time goes very quickly in his company. He is very good company. Even a long journey may seem short when there is someone to keep us company on the way. Even a short journey may seem long if there is no-one to keep us company.

A1 : Who are the men seated round the table ?

2 : What is a company ?

3 : What is the name of this company ?

4 : When was the company formed ?

5 : How old is the company ?

B1 : By whom is the price of yarn fixed ?

2 : By whom are changes in organization made ?

3 : What sort of trouble may there be with the workers' organization ?

4 : The owners have to say what they are going to do about these questions. What is another way of saying this (using the word *decision*) ?

5 : What sort of decisions will they make quickly ?

6 : When will they take a long time to make a decision ?

C1 : There are two men at the head of the table. Who is the man on the right ?

2 : Who is the head of the organization ?

3 : Has he authority to say what everyone in the mill has to do ?

4 : Who has given him this authority ?

5 : How long has this man been manager ?

6 : What experience has he had ?

7 : Why is he a very good manager ?

8 : What is the man at the smaller table ?

9 : Is he under the manager or is the manager under him ?

10 : What is he doing ?

11 : Who keeps a record of all the meetings ?

D1 : How long has the company not been making any profit ?

2 : Why has the company not been making any profit ?

3 : How long has the price of yarn been falling ?

4 : How much loss is there ?

5 : What are the creditors saying ?

6 : What is the question about which the men have to make a decision ?

E1 : Are they certain about what to do ?

2 : What do they all say ?

3 : What suggestion did one (another, a third, a fourth) man make ?

4 : What was the manager's opinion about the suggestion to send some of the men away ?

5 : What was the manager's suggestion ?

6 : What did everyone do when the manager made this suggestion ?

7 : What did the company give the manager authority to do ?

8 : What decision did the company come to about the workers ?

F1 : Where is the manager going ?

2 : Where is he now ?

3 : Who are with him ?

4 : Where are they going ?

5 : Will the manager be by himself all the way or will he have company ?

6 : Why will the time go quickly ?

7 : Did he have company when he went to Bombay last ?

8 : Why was the journey uninteresting ?

9 : What sort of man is the one who is on the manager's left ?

10 : In whose company does time go very quickly ?

11 : What is another way of saying this ?

12 : When may even a long journey seem very short ?

13 : When may even a short journey seem very long ?

P1 : At a circus one may see a man attempting to keep his balance on a (football).

S : Football : one leg, two hands, one hand.

2 : At a circus one may see a man balancing a (long stick) on his (head).

S : Long stick : a seat, a boy, etc.
Head : hand.

3 : I have made my decision. When I get my release I am going to become a (motor driver).

S : Motor driver : motor mechanic, foreman in a factory, farmer, clerk, policeman, etc.

4 : The commander came to the decision to (make an attack on the enemy).

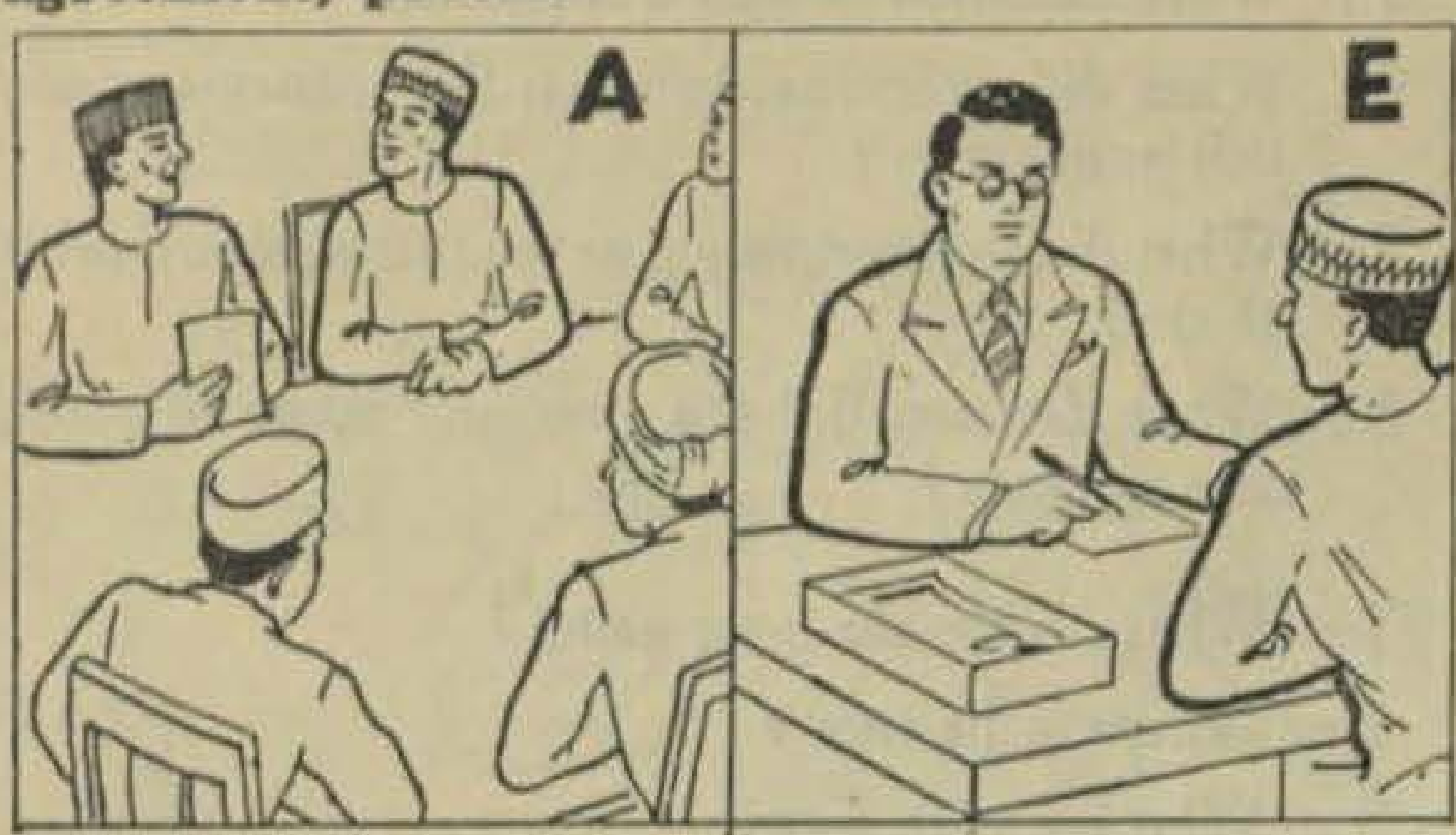
S : Make an attack : go forward, go back to the town, put up an artillery barrage, send out patrols.

5 : At the panchayat meeting one man made a suggestion that (a radio) might be put up in the middle of the village.

S : A radio : a recreation-room, a reading-room, a school building, a village chavadi.

Unit 41 : A Military Contract

agreement, protest



A. The owners of Motilal and Company are having another meeting. There is a complete change now. Prices are going up and businessmen are making a good profit. Motilal and Company have not only a mill producing yarn but a mill producing cloth as well. The man who is at the head of the table has in his hand an advertisement which has been put in the newspapers by the Government. The Army has to have 100,000 khaki uniforms (battle-dress) of a certain size and quality before the end of December 1944. The company which is able to make the uniforms at the lowest possible price will be given the 'contract.'

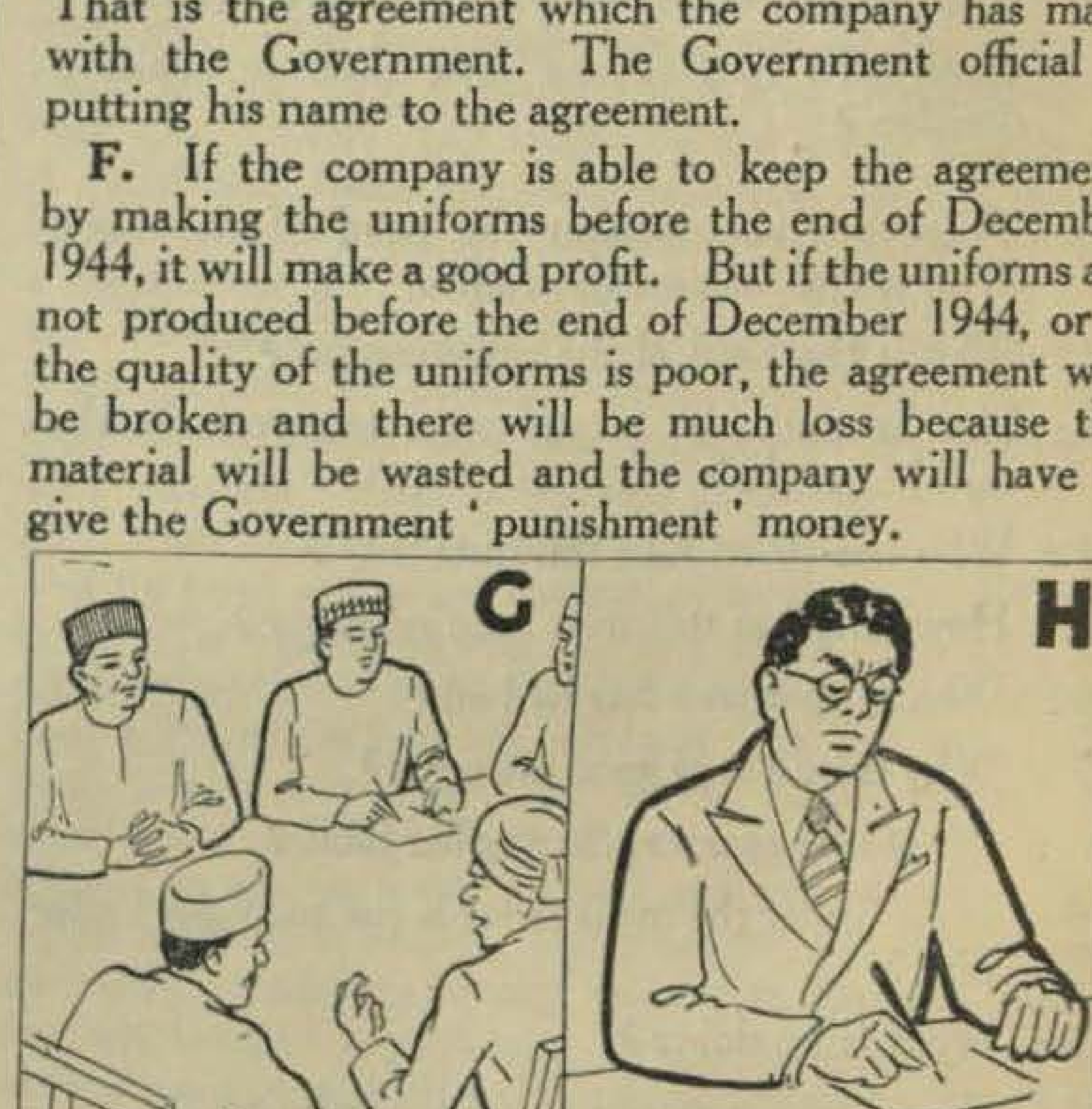
B. All those present at the meeting are certain that Army contracts are good business and that it is wise to take them up. They are all in complete agreement on the question of Army contracts. The question about which they have now to come to a decision is : At what price are these uniforms to be made for the Army? All have a desire to make the greatest possible amount of profit. But if the price fixed by the company is very high there is a danger that the contract may be given to some other company which is ready to make the uniforms at a lower price. So there was a discussion about the question of price.

C. One man said that 20 rupees would not be very high. Another man said that 20 rupees would be a very high price for a uniform, and that 15 rupees would be nearer the normal price. A third man said that even 13 rupees would be high because even at 13 rupees the company would be able to make a good profit. There was no agreement on the question of price. The manager then got up and said that at the rate of 12 rupees a uniform the company would be able to make quite a good profit, and that in his opinion there was no danger in putting down 12 rupees as their price for a uniform. After a short discussion the owners of the company came to the decision to put down 12 rupees as the price of a uniform.

D. The man who is at the head of the table is now giving the manager authority to send a letter to the Government saying that Motilal and Company would undertake to make 100,000 uniforms for the Army at the rate of 12 rupees a uniform before the end of December 1944.

E. Motilal and Company have now got the Army contract, because 12 rupees was the lowest price at which any company was ready to make the uniforms. The manager of Motilal and Company is in a Government office, talking to an 'official' who is writing something on a bit of paper. The company and the Government have made an agreement which has been put down in writing. The agreement says that Motilal and Company have undertaken to make 100,000 uniforms of a certain size and quality and to let the Government have them at the rate of 12 rupees a uniform before the end of December 1944. If the uniforms are not ready before December 1944, or if the quality of the uniforms is not right, the company will have to give the Government a certain amount of money—as a sort of punishment. That is the agreement which the company has made with the Government. The Government official is putting his name to the agreement.

F. If the company is able to keep the agreement, by making the uniforms before the end of December 1944, it will make a good profit. But if the uniforms are not produced before the end of December 1944, or if the quality of the uniforms is poor, the agreement will be broken and there will be much loss because the material will be wasted and the company will have to give the Government 'punishment' money.



G. The 100,000 uniforms have now been produced and sent to the Government. But the Government has made no payment. There is trouble between the company and the Government, and the owners are meeting again. What is the trouble about? The company has sent three requests for money to the Government official who put his name to the agreement, but still no payment has been made. The owners of the company are disgusted. They are now sending a letter to a higher authority pointing out that a wrong has been done to them. In other words the company is making a protest to the higher authority.

H. The Government official who put his name to the agreement is very angry. The commanding officer of the training centre at Jubbulpore has sent a letter to say that the number of uniforms sent was less than 100,000 and that the quality of the material is very

poor. The Government official is now writing a letter of protest to the company. He is protesting against the quality of the material and against the fact that the number of uniforms which were sent was less than 100,000. When the company gets the letter of protest it will have to say why the quality of the material was poor and why the number of uniforms sent was less than 100,000.

A1 : What are the owners of Motilal and Company doing ?
2 : There is a complete change now. What is the change ?
3 : Has the company one mill or two mills now ?
4 : What has the man at the head of the table in his hand ?
5 : By whom has the advertisement been put in ?
6 : What is the Army in need of ?
7 : When are the uniforms needed ?
8 : Which company will be given the 'contract' ?

B1 : Why is it wise to take up Army contracts ?
2 : On what question are all the men in complete agreement ?
3 : What is the question about which they have now to come to a decision ?
4 : What is the desire of all of them ?
5 : What is the danger if the price fixed by the company is very high ?
6 : What was the discussion about ?

C1 : What did one man say ?
2 : What price would be nearer the normal in the opinion of another man ?
3 : Why would even thirteen rupees be very high in the opinion of a third man ?
4 : Was there any agreement on the question of price ?
5 : How much profit would the company be able to make at the rate of twelve rupees a uniform ?
6 : What decision did the company come to about the price of a uniform ?

D1 : Who will send a letter to the Government ?
2 : What will the letter say ?

E1 : Why have Motilal and Company got the Army contract ?
2 : Where is the manager of Motilal and Company ?
3 : What is he doing there ?
4 : Who have made an agreement ?
5 : Has the agreement been put down in writing ?
6 : What does the agreement say about the number of uniforms to be made ?
7 : What does the agreement say about the price of a uniform ?
8 : What does the agreement say about the time when the uniforms have to be ready ?
9 : What will be the punishment if the uniforms are not ready before the end of December 1944 (the quality of the uniforms is not right) ?
10 : Who is putting his name to the agreement ?

F1 : Will the company make a good profit ?
2 : How is it possible for the agreement to be broken ?
3 : Why will there be much loss if the agreement is broken ?

G1 : What number of uniforms have now been produced and sent to the Government ?
2 : Why are the owners of the company meeting again ?
3 : To whom did the company send a request for money ?
4 : Why are the owners of the company disgusted ?
5 : To whom are they now sending a letter ?
6 : What will the letter say ?
7 : In other words what is the company doing ?

H1 : Who is very angry ?
2 : Who has sent him a letter ?
3 : What does the letter say ?
4 : What is the Government official doing now ?
5 : What is he protesting against ?
6 : What will the Company have to do when it gets the letter of protest ?

P1 : There was no agreement on the question what sort of (dress) (was) best for babies ? Everyone had a different opinion.
S : Dress : food.

2 : There was complete agreement on the decision to give every sepoy a knowledge of (his mother-tongue).
S : His mother-tongue : citizenship, rural reconstruction, hand-work, etc.

3 : The two brothers made an agreement that they were to have one-half of their father's (property).
S : Property : money, gold, jewels, farm.

4 : The sepoy made a protest to the sergeant against the quality of his (boots). He said that the (boots) (were) of a poor quality.
S : Boots : stockings, equipment, food.

5 : The workers made a protest against the (cut in their pay).
S : Cut in pay : bad working conditions, increased hours, etc.

6 : What am I touching ?
S : Table, seat, window-frame, etc.

7 : Most women have a desire for beautiful (saris).
S : Saris : jewels, ornaments.

8 : My friend has a feeling of regret that he did not get a good knowledge of (English) while he was in the Army.
S : English : Urdu, woodwork, leather-work, etc.

Unit 42 : Some Inventions

science, apparatus, invention

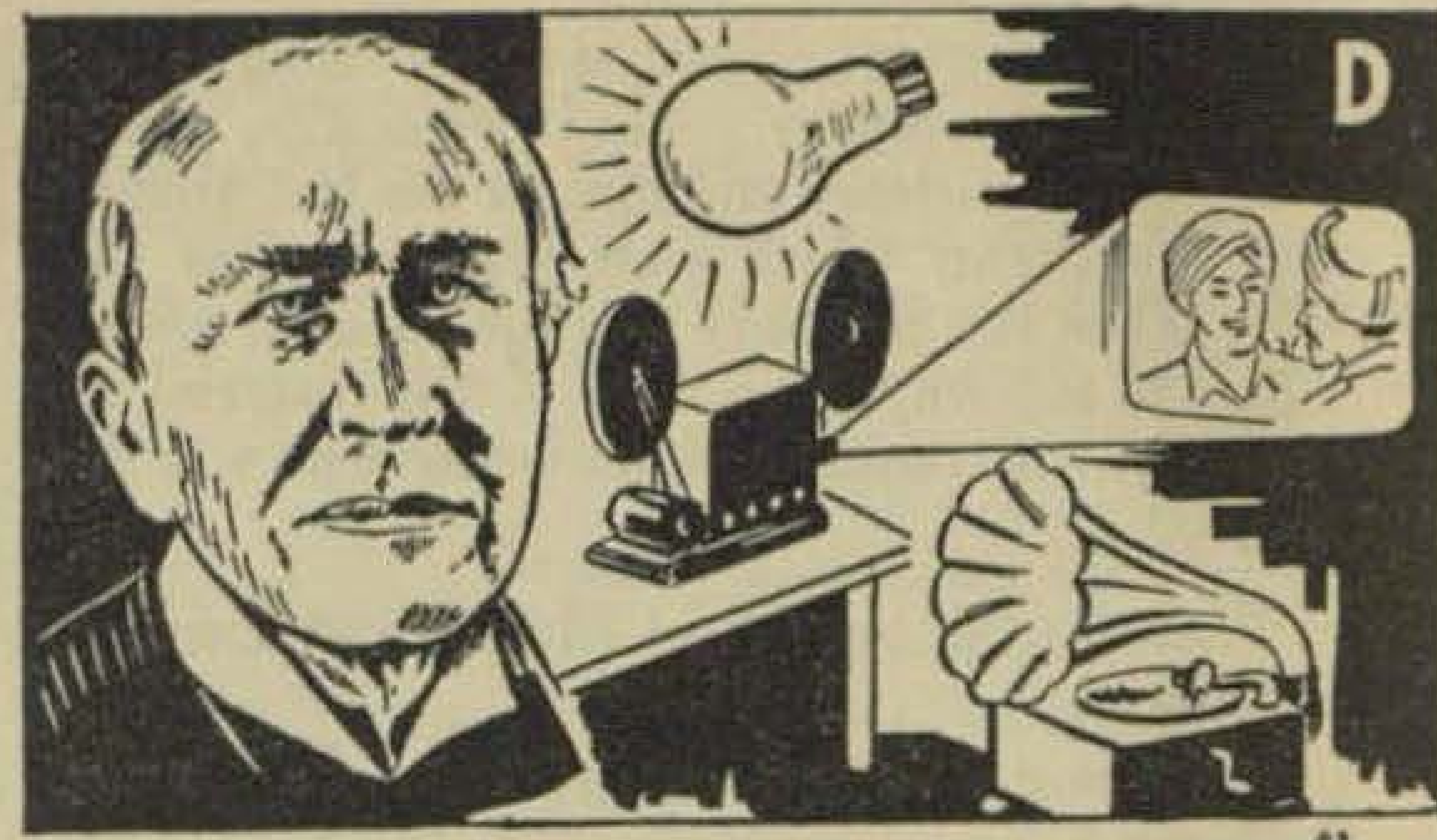


A. A man is working in a room. He is heating some liquid in a glass vessel over a flame. In the liquid is a thermometer, which is an instrument for measuring heat. The man is noting the temperature of the liquid. There are shelves all round the wall and on the shelves are bottles, glasses, burners, ovens, balances and all sorts of instruments for measuring heat or sound or weight or size. The room is full of the apparatus with which the man does his work. In the bottles are all sorts of substances of different form, size and colour. Who is this man, and what is he doing in this room? He is a man of science, and this is the room in which he does his work.

B. What is science? Science gives us knowledge about the motions of the earth, the sun and the moon; it gives us knowledge about the qualities of the different substances which are present on the earth; it says how one substance may be changed into another substance or how new substances may be made. Science has given us a number of new things which were never in existence before, like gramophones, telegraphs, railway engines, motor cars, radio sets, submarines, and airplanes. These things were completely new when they were first made; they were inventions.

C. When something which is completely new is made or produced we say it is an invention. The first knife was an invention; the first clock was an invention; the first watch was an invention; the first bit of paper was an invention; the first bit of glass was an invention. These things were never in existence before men made them. They were all inventions of men. Some of these inventions, like knives and clocks and paper, came in very early days. Other inventions, like the gramophone, electric light, motion pictures, the telegraph, the steam-engine, the electric tram, the motor car and the airplane came much later.

D. Some of these inventions were made in England; others were made in Germany; and still others were made in America. It is not possible to say which



country has been responsible for the greatest number of inventions, but there is little doubt that the man who has the greatest number of inventions to his credit was an American named Edison. The electric light, the moving picture and the gramophone were all his inventions.

E. Which invention has been of the greatest use to men? There is probably no agreement on this question; different men will have different opinions. One possible answer is the wheel. Of all the inventions the wheel is probably the one which has been of the greatest use to us. This may seem surprising, but it is probably true. There is no work in which the wheel is not used. Pots are made on wheels; cloth is made on wheels; we have to have wheels in machines; all transport is based on wheels. We are all of us in debt to the man who made the first wheel—one of man's earliest inventions.

F. Wars have been responsible for a great number of inventions. The submarine was one of the inventions of the first world war. In the last war we had the magnetic mine, the flying bomb, the rocket bomb and—last and most surprising of all—the atom bomb, the invention of which was chiefly responsible for the sudden end of the war with Japan. A great number of men of science had been working secretly for years before the first atom bomb was produced.

G. All the weapons with which we do our fighting to-day (like machine-guns, tanks and airplanes) were made possible by men of science working in rooms like the one which we see in the picture. Science has put great powers of destruction in the hands of men. But it would be wrong to say that science has done more bad than good. Science has given us a number of other inventions, like the gramophone or the telegraph or the motor car, which have done a great amount of good. Then there is one branch of science, medical science, which through its inventions has made us healthier and happier than ever before. Science is not good or bad; it is we men—we who put some of the inventions of science to the wrong use—who are bad. For example, the airplane is generally used for dropping bombs on enemy towns; but it may be used in the same way for dropping D.D.T. powder on places where there is

malaria, so that these places may be made quite safe for those who are living there. The airplane may be the cause of death and destruction; but it may equally be an instrument by which existence may be made healthier and happier. It is for us to say how it is to be used.

A1 : What is this man doing?
2 : What is he heating?
3 : What is in the liquid?
4 : What sort of instrument is a thermometer?
5 : What is the man noting?
6 : What are there all round the walls?
7 : What are there on the shelves?
8 : What are the instruments for?
9 : Give one name for all the bottles, burners, and instruments with which the man is working.
10 : What is in the bottles?
11 : Who is this man?
B1 : What sort of knowledge does science give us?
2 : Give examples of some of the things which science has given us.
3 : Why do we say that these were inventions?
C1 : When do we say that a thing is an invention?
2 : Why do we say that the first knife (clock, watch, bit of paper, bit of glass) was an invention?
3 : Whose inventions were they?
4 : Which of these inventions came in very early days?
5 : Which inventions came much later?
D1 : Where were some of these inventions (others, still others) made?
2 : Which country (man) has been responsible for the greatest number of inventions?
3 : Give some examples of his inventions.
E1 : Which invention has been of the greatest use to men? What is one possible answer?
2 : Why do we say that of all man's inventions the wheel is the one which has been of the greatest use to us?
3 : Give examples of the sort of work for which a wheel is used.
F1 : What have been responsible for a great number of inventions?
2 : What was one of the inventions of World War I?
3 : What were some of the inventions of the last war?
4 : Which was the most surprising of these inventions?
5 : Which was the invention which was chiefly responsible for the sudden end of the war with Japan?
6 : Was the first atom bomb produced quickly?
G1 : Who made all these weapons possible?
2 : What are the chief weapons with which we do our fighting today?
3 : What has science put in the hands of men?
4 : Why would it be wrong to say that science has done more bad than good?
5 : What has medical science done for us?
6 : How may an invention of science be put to a bad use?
7 : How may the same invention be put to a good use?
8 : Who is to say how an airplane is to be used?

Seatwork

A. *Put the right word in the spaces:*

1. ....what the weight of this parcel is.
2. I was not able to..............................my balance and so I had a fall.
3. He was not by himself in the train; he.............................. company all the way.
4. I saw him..............................the company.............................. his friends.
5. There was no-one to..............................him company on the way.
6. You have to..............................a decision quickly because the answer has to be sent before tomorrow morning.
7. His suggestion..............................that I was to see the doctor immediately.
8. They had no suggestion to..............................
9. I put..............................a number of suggestions at the meeting.
10. There was no agreement..............................this question.
11. They..............................an agreement about the division of the property.
12. They..............................to an agreement about the salary.
13. The agreement..............................that the man was to give back all the money he had taken.
14. If you don't send the goods before May 1 the agreement will be..............................
15. The sepoys..............................a protest..............................the C.O.
16. The workers..............................a letter.............................. protest to the manager.
17. The man is protesting..............................the language used by the policeman.

B. *Put these statements differently, without changing the sense, by using the words in the brackets.*

1. This is an account of the different branches of the Post Office and how they do their work. (organization)
2. Why did you send that letter? (purpose)
....
3. He has done signalling for ten years. (experience)
....

Unit 43 : Some Discoveries

chemical, discovery, reward



43.

A. Here is another man of science working in a science room. As before there are a great number of glasses, bottles, burners, ovens and apparatus of different sorts in the room. This man is a medical man—a doctor. He is putting some substance from a bottle into a glass. It is the sort of substance which is given to us when we are ill. Another name for such a substance is a chemical. In any M.I. room you will see a number of bottles full of chemicals of every sort and colour. Some of these chemicals are liquids ; others are solids ; still others are powders. These chemicals are used for making up the medicines which are given to you when you are ill.

B. What is the medical man doing in this room ? He is noting the qualities of a number of different substances. While testing a great number of substances he may come across one which will make a man with a certain chest disease healthy again. If he does come across one he will have made a discovery. When a man makes something completely new, which was never in existence before, we say it is an invention. But when a man comes across something which was in existence before but of which no-one had any knowledge we say he has made a discovery. The man who came across iron for the first time, thousands of years back, made a discovery. The man who came across coal for the first time, thousands of years back, made a discovery. The man who came across copper for the first time, thousands of years back, made a discovery. We have no idea who made the discovery of coal or iron, or when the discoveries were made. These discoveries were made such a long time back that we have no records about them.

C. All through the years medical men have been making discoveries about the structure of our bodies, the causes of disease and the right sort of medicines for them. One of the most important discoveries in medical science was made by a Frenchman named Pasteur, who was noted for his learning. He made the discovery that almost all fevers were caused by poisons which get into our blood in the form of very small living bodies or plants ; and to make the man healthy we have to get his blood free of these living poisons. Another great discovery in medical science was the discovery of quinine, by an Englishman named Ronald Ross, who was noted for his knowledge of diseases. He did most of his work in Bengal, where malaria is very common. He had been working hard for a long time before he made the discovery, and everyone who has ever taken quinine for malaria is very much in his debt. One of the most noted discoveries of this war was the discovery of penicillin, a substance which was widely used in all army hospitals for making wounds healthy. When penicillin is used for wounds they get healthy very quickly and there is little or no danger of a man coming to his death from poisons caused by the wound.

D. When a soldier does a great act he may get a reward for it. The reward may be a medal or a certain amount of money. But what sort of reward do the men who make these medical discoveries get ? Some are rewarded with money ; others are rewarded with posts in science colleges. But most of them get no reward for their work at all. And still they go on working and making discoveries, only because they have a great desire for knowledge.



43

E. The stories of some noted discoveries are very interesting. There is, for example, the story of the discovery of America. The discovery of America was made, less than five hundred years back, by an Italian named Columbus. Till the days of Columbus no-one had any knowledge of the existence of the great mass of land which is now named America. In those days there was a great amount of trade between India and England. European traders got to India by going east, that is to say, down the west of Africa and up again through the Indian Ocean. The idea came into Columbus's head that it might be possible to get to India by going the other way—by sailing west.

F. But in those days men had a great fear of the sea ; sea journeys were looked on as very unsafe, and a journey across the Atlantic was specially unsafe because no-one had any idea how wide the Atlantic might be, or what strange lands there might be, if any, on the other side. So Columbus had great trouble in getting men, money or ships for the journey. At last, however,

the Queen of Spain gave him three ships, and early one morning in August 1492, before the sun was up, he made a start.

G. Out in the Atlantic the fears of the sailors became greater than ever. The ship kept getting into masses of sea-plants, and it seemed as if the ship might get fixed in them. But they went on and on for two long months, and still there was no land. The sailors became tired and angry and made a strong request to Columbus to go back. But he would not be turned from his purpose. At last the sailors became so angry that they made an agreement among themselves to put Columbus to death and make the journey back to Spain without him. Happily Columbus got news of what the men were about to do, and had some of them put in chains. As the days went by the stores of food became less and less, and there was very little water. Still on and on they went. At last, one night in October, a light was seen in the distance moving up and down. It was land, land at last ! But Columbus was not in India at all ; he had made the discovery of a great new mass of land, the land which was later named America.

A1 : Where is this man of science working ?
2 : What different sorts of apparatus are there in the room ?
3 : What is this man ?
4 : Where is he putting some substance ?
5 : What sort of substance is it ?
6 : What is another name for such a substance ?
7 : Where do you generally see bottles full of chemicals ?
8 : In what three different forms are these chemicals ?
9 : What are these chemicals used for ?

B1 : What is the man noting ?
2 : What may he come across while testing a great number of these substances ?
3 : What will he have done if he does come across one ?
4 : When do we say a thing is an invention ?
5 : When do we say a man has made a discovery ?
6 : What did the man who came across iron for the first time do ?
7 : Why do we say that the man who came across coal (copper) for the first time made a discovery ?
8 : Have we any idea who made the discovery of coal or iron ?
9 : Have we any idea when the discovery was made ?

C1 : What three sorts of discoveries have medical men been making ?
2 : By whom was one of the most important discoveries in medical science made ?
3 : What was Pasteur noted for ?
4 : What discovery did he make ?
5 : In what form do these poisons get into our blood ?
6 : How do we make the man healthy again ?
7 : What was another great discovery in medical science ?
8 : By whom was the discovery made ?
9 : What was Ross noted for ?
10 : Where did he do most of his work ?
11 : Why did he do most of his work in Bengal ?
12 : Had he been working long before he made the discovery ?
13 : Who is very much in debt to Ross ?
14 : What is one of the most noted discoveries of this war ?
15 : For what was penicillin widely used in army hospitals ?
16 : Why is penicillin a good medicine for wounds ?

D1 : What may a soldier get when he does a great act ?
2 : What may the reward be ?
3 : What are some medical men rewarded with (others) ?
4 : Some medical men get no reward at all. Still they go on working. Why ?

E1 : There is one noted discovery the story of which is interesting. Which one is that ?
2 : When was the discovery of America made ?
3 : By whom was it made ?
4 : Why do we say it was a discovery ?
5 : How did European traders get to India in those days ?
6 : What idea came into Columbus's head ?

F1 : Why was a sea-journey across the Atlantic specially unsafe ?
2 : Did Columbus get ships, men and money without trouble ?
3 : Who gave him three ships at last ?
4 : When did he make a start ?

G1 : Why did the fears of the sailors become greater out in the Atlantic ?
2 : How long did they go on and on ?
3 : What did the sailors do when they became tired ?
4 : What sort of agreement did the sailors make among themselves ?
5 : What did Columbus do to the sailors when he got news about the agreement ?
6 : Why did their troubles become greater as the days went by ?
7 : When did they see land at last ?
8 : Was Columbus in India ?
9 : What discovery had he made ?

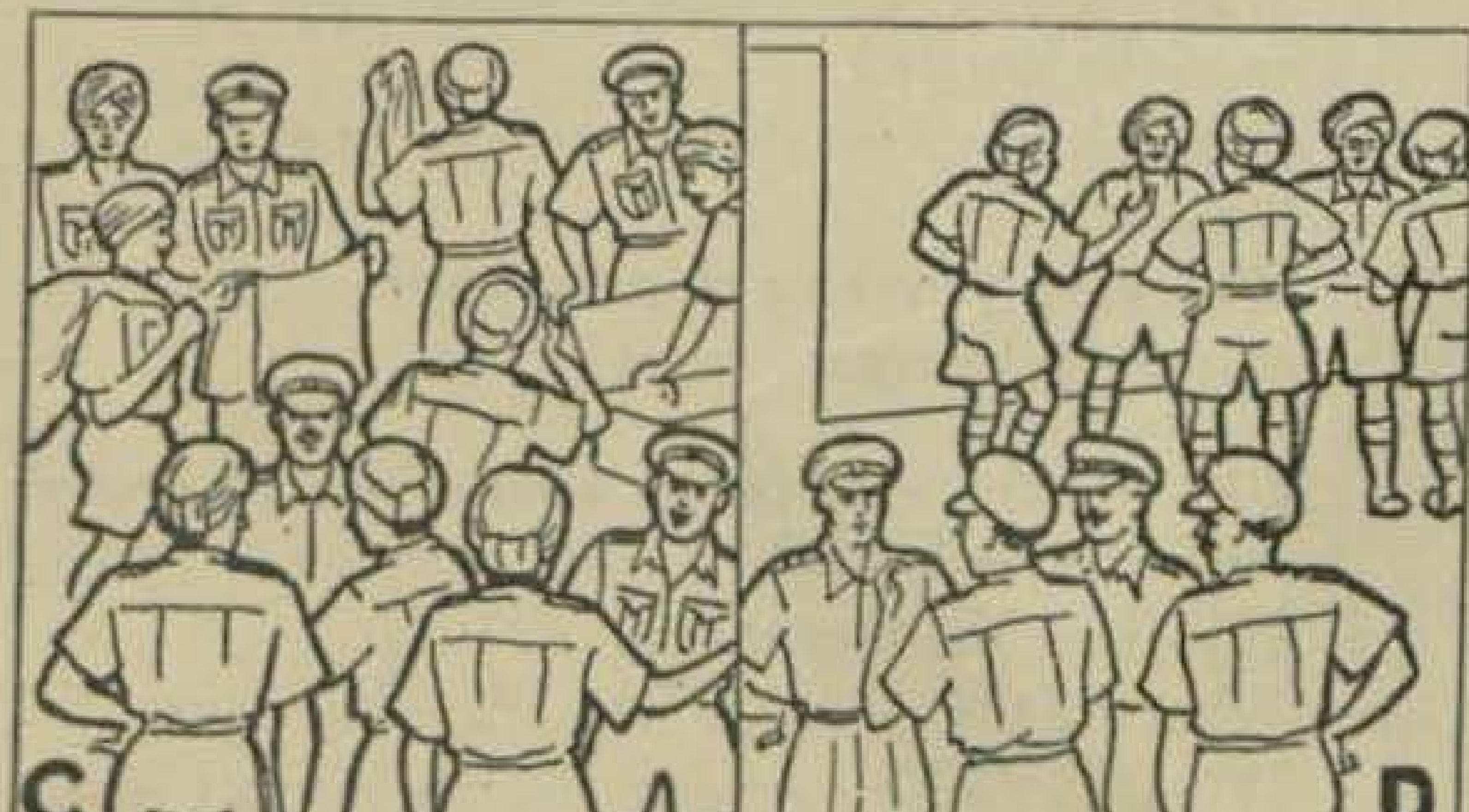
Unit 44 : Mixed and Separate Regiments

mixed, separate, hope



A. Two sepoys are having a meal in a canteen. The curry which they are having has a good taste. It has a specially good taste because in the curry the meat is mixed with vegetables. The sepoy on the right is saying that a curry in which there is only meat or a curry in which there are only vegetables is not so good as a curry in which the meat and the vegetables are mixed together. But the other sepoy has a different opinion. He never has meat. That is why he is getting the bits of meat separate from the bits of vegetables. He is taking the bits of meat out of his plate and putting them on another plate.

B. When two solids like bits of meat and bits of vegetable are mixed together in a curry it is sometimes possible to get them separate. But when two liquids like milk and water are mixed together in a glass it is not possible to get them separate.



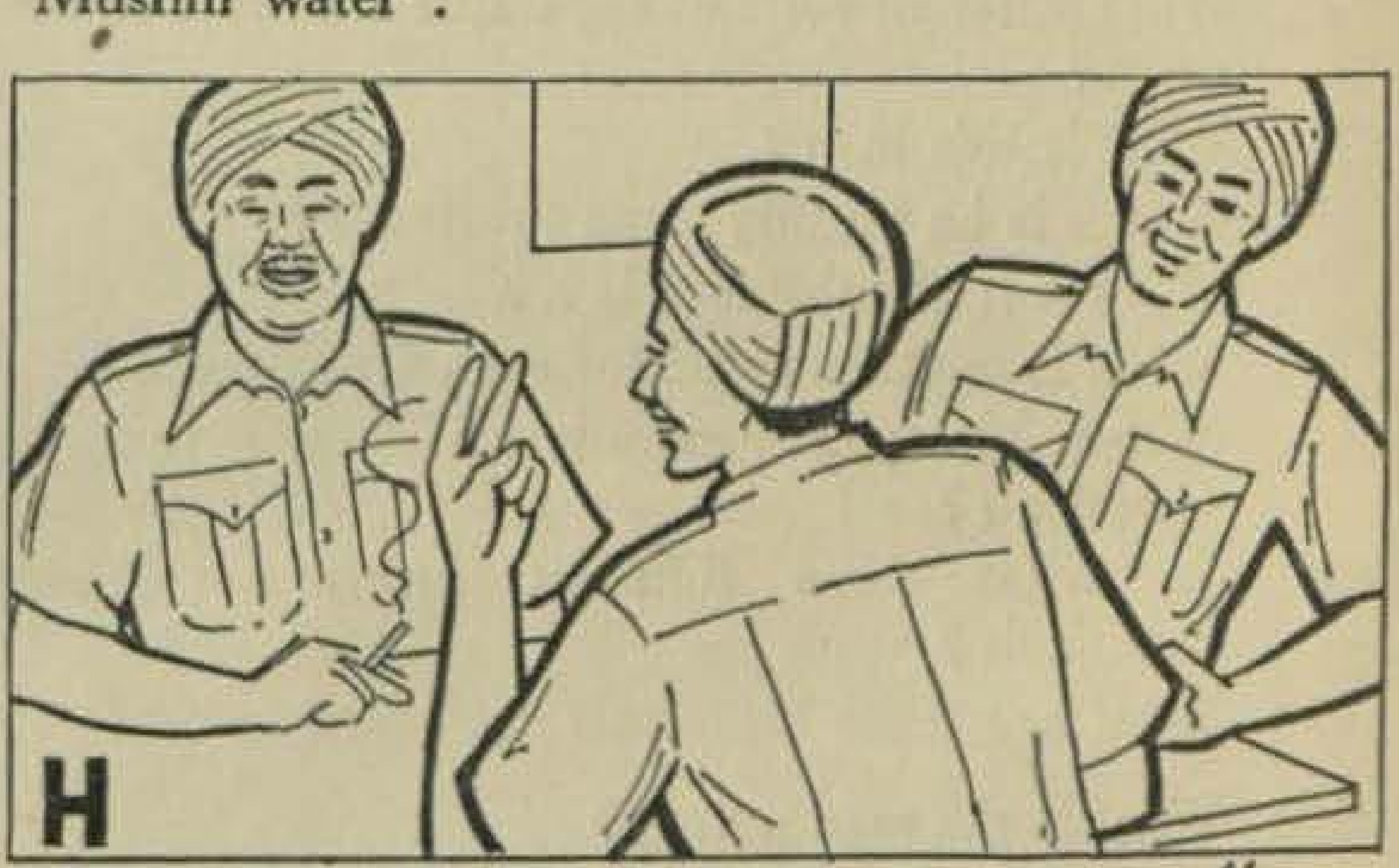
C. These men in Singapore are getting ready to go back to India. They were sent from Burma to take Singapore from the Japanese. But the Japanese gave up Singapore without a fight, and the men are waiting to go back to India. The men and their officers are together in this group. The group is a mixed group of men and officers.

D. Here there are two groups. All the officers are together in one group, and all the men are together in another group. The officers are now separate from the men. The officers and the men are in two separate groups.

E. In every military station there are separate quarters for men and officers. The officers' quarters are generally at some distance from the men's quarters. In some stations there are separate quarters for married men. There are not only separate quarters for men and officers ; there are separate messes for men and officers as well. The men and the officers have their meals separately.

F. Some of our regiments in the Indian Army are mixed regiments of Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs. The Rajputana Rifles, for example, is a mixed regiment of Hindus and Muslims. Again some of the Punjab regiments are mixed regiments of Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs. But generally we have separate regiments for Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs—regiments in which there are only Hindus, or only Muslims or only Sikhs.

G. At all railway stations in North India Hindus and Muslims have separate tea and drinking water. Boys with pots of tea or water go up and down the platform crying, 'Hindu tea', 'Muslim tea', 'Hindu water', 'Muslim water'.



H. Sami, Mudaliar and Reddi are all at a table. They are talking about something and seem to be very happy. Sami has such a good fighting record that his officer has sent up a request that Sami may be made an N.C.O. Sami is very happy because he has a hope that he will become an N.C.O. in a short time. Mudaliar is an expert in shooting. He has had a long training in shooting and he is one of the best shots in the company. There will be a shooting competition tomorrow, and Mudaliar has a hope that he will come first in the shooting competition. Reddi has sent in a request for leave. He had a talk with the N.C.O. yesterday. The N.C.O. said that because Reddi had never taken any leave before he had a hope that the C.O. would give him at least a month's leave now. Reddi is very happy because though it is not certain that he will get a month's leave he is full of hope that he will get at least two weeks' leave.



49

I. This is a picture of the siege of Kohima. The Japanese were all round the little garrison bombing and machine-gunning from all sides. The garrison was completely encircled. Inside Kohima itself there was much destruction of men and material; there was little ammunition and less food. The position of the garrison was very bad. But the men would not give up because they had a hope that one day an army from Imphal would come down and the Japanese would be smashed. A month later an army did come down from Imphal and the Japanese were turned back. The hopes of the garrison came true.

J. This is a picture of the war of the Sittang river in Burma. The British and Indian troops had taken Rangoon and the railway from Mandalay to Rangoon. But the Japanese in the woods near the Sittang river were still fighting on because they were hoping that one day the British and Indian lines would be broken and a Japanese army would come through. When, however, the Japanese in the woods saw that there was no hope of their getting any help from outside they gave up.

A1 : What are these two sepoys doing?
2 : What sort of meal are they having?
3 : What is the meat in the curry mixed with?
4 : What are the vegetables in the curry mixed with?
5 : Which is better—a curry in which there is only meat or vegetables or a curry in which meat and vegetables are mixed?
6 : Has the other sepoy the same opinion?
7 : He is taking the bits of meat out of his plate and putting them on another plate. What is another way of saying this (using *separate*)?

B : Is it possible to get two solids (liquids) which are mixed together separate?

C1 : Where are these men getting ready to go?
2 : Why were they sent to Singapore?
3 : What are the men waiting for now?
4 : Is this a mixed group of men and officers or are the men and officers in separate groups?

D : Are the men and officers together in one group or are the officers separate from the men?

E1 : Do men and officers in a military station have the same quarters?
2 : How far are the officers' quarters from the men's quarters?
3 : Are there separate quarters for married men?
4 : Do men and officers have their meals in the same mess?

F1 : Some of our regiments in the Indian Army are mixed regiments. Give one example of a mixed regiment.
2 : Why do we say that the Rajputana Rifles is a mixed regiment?
3 : What three 'communities' are mixed together in some of the Punjab regiments?

G1 : Do Hindus and Muslims at railway stations in North India get their tea or water from the same man?
2 : What do the boys with pots of tea or water say while they are going up and down the platform?

H1 : Where are Sami, Mudaliar and Reddi?
2 : Do they seem sad or happy?
3 : What sort of request has Sami's officer sent up?
4 : Why has he sent this request?
5 : Why is Sami very happy?
6 : What is Mudaliar an expert in?
7 : Why is he one of the best shots in the company?
8 : What will there be tomorrow?
9 : What is Mudaliar's hope?
10 : Why has Mudaliar a hope that he will come first in the shooting competition?
11 : What has Reddi sent in?
12 : When did he have a talk with the N.C.O.?
13 : Why did the N.C.O. have a hope that the C.O. would give Reddi at least a month's leave?
14 : Is Reddi certain that he will get a month's leave?
15 : Why is he so happy then?

I1 : What is this a picture of?
2 : What were the Japanese doing to the town?
3 : What was the position of the garrison?
4 : Why do you say that the position of the garrison was very bad?
5 : Why would the men not give up?
6 : Did the hopes of the garrison come true?
7 : Why do you say that the hopes of the garrison came true?

J1 : What is this a picture of?
2 : In whose hands was the railway at the time?
3 : Why then were the Japanese fighting on?
4 : What did the Japanese do when they saw that there was no hope of their getting any help from outside?

Unit 45 : Poison Gas And The Armed Forces

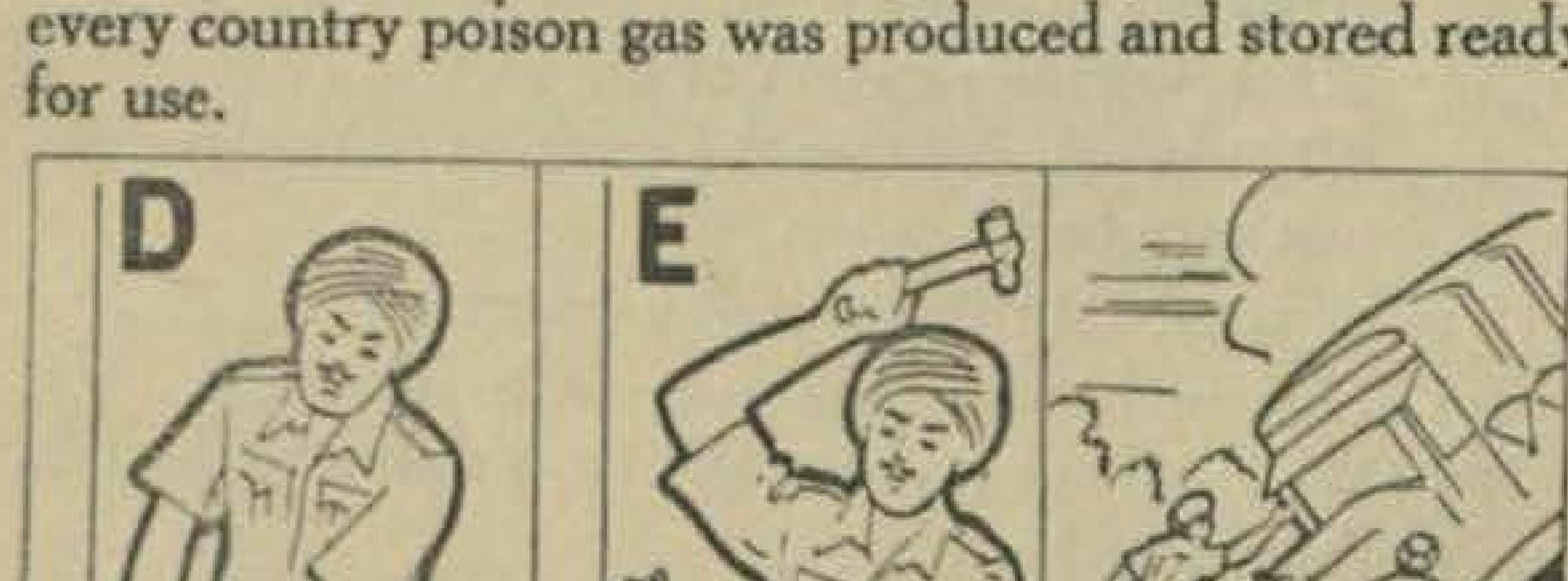
effect, force



A. Every soldier has to have a knowledge of these two things : how to keep himself safe against a poison gas attack and how to take cover when there is an air raid. Here an officer is giving a talk on poison gas to a group of sepoys at a gas class. He is giving them an account of the different sorts of poison gas and of what a poison gas does to a man—the effect of poison gas on a man.

B. One sort of poison gas has a bad effect on the skin ; it gives us burns. Another sort of poison gas has a bad effect on the eyes ; it makes the eyes red and gives us a burning pain in the eyes. A third sort of poison gas has a bad effect on the lips and the mouth ; it makes the lips stiff and gives us a pain in the mouth. But of all the poison gases the one which is worst is probably chlorine. What is the effect of chlorine on a man ? Chlorine has a very bad effect on a man's breathing. When there is chlorine in the air we have trouble with our breathing ; it is hard to take a breath in and out. And if a man who has taken in chlorine gas does not get medical attention quickly death may take place.

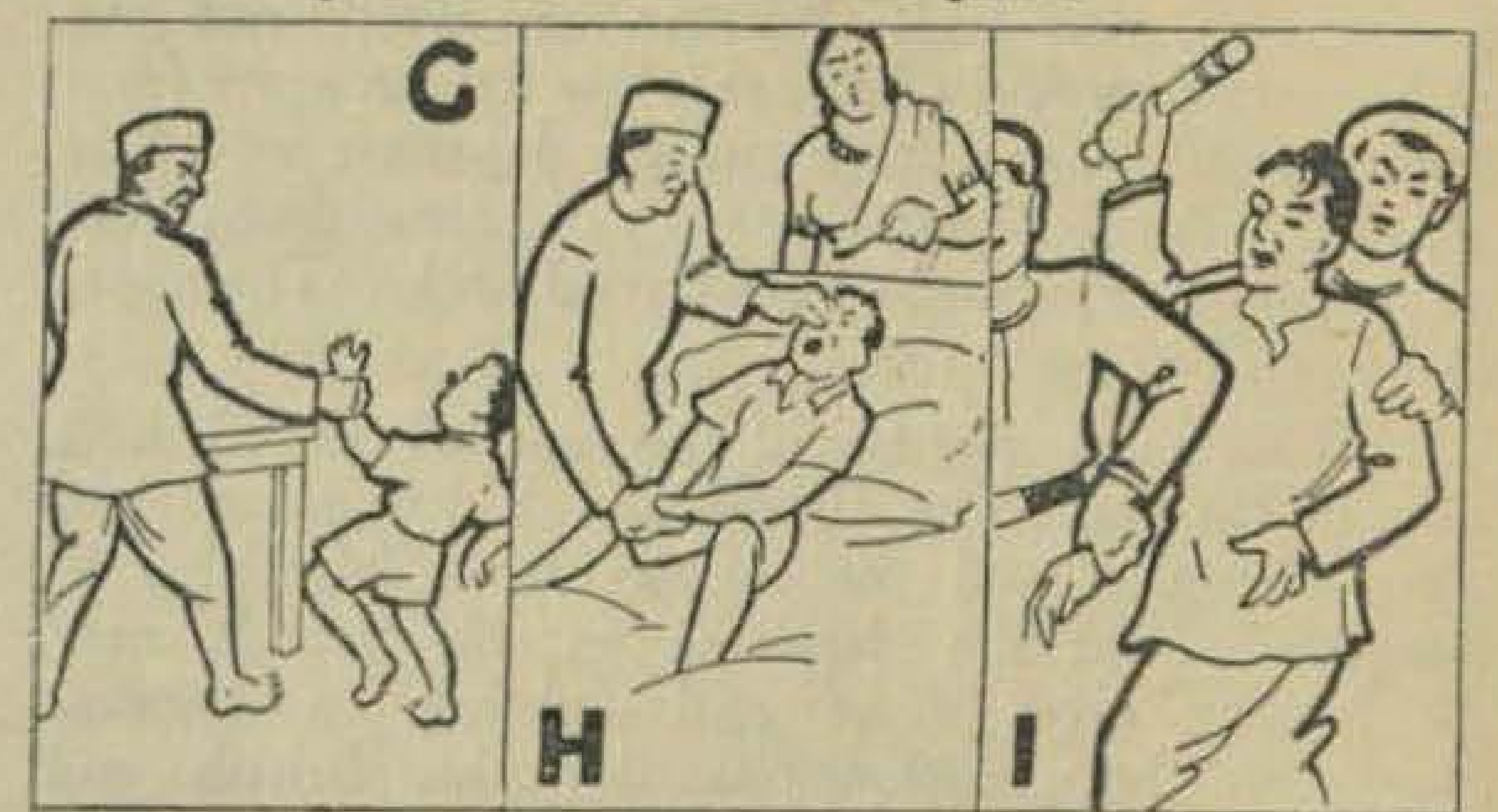
C. In the last war poison gas was used by the Germans against the Canadians. The gas which the Germans made use of was chlorine. But in this war poison gas was not used, though it is probable that in every country poison gas was produced and stored ready for use.



D. Khan is attempting to get a nail out of the wall. He has been pulling at the nail for some time now. He is not able to get the nail out of the wall because there is not enough force in the pull. If he was able to put more force into his pull he would be able to get the nail out.

E. Khan is now driving a nail into a wall. The wall is made of cement and is very hard. Khan is giving the nail blow after blow with his hammer. But he is not able to get the nail in because there is not enough force in the blows. If he put more force into the blows he might be able to get the nail in.

F. A party of four sepoys were going back to their camp when their lorry went into a drain at the side of the road. The sepoys are now attempting to get the front wheels of the lorry out of the drain by giving the lorry a push. The drain is about three feet deep. The sepoys are pushing the lorry from the front, but it is quite clear that more force is needed to get the wheels out of the drain. If there were more men they would be able to put more force into the push.



G. Gopal, Ram's small son, takes no interest in his work. He never does his work readily. Every night after his meal Ram has to make him get out his books and do his school work. Ram has taken Gopal by the hand and is making him go to the table. Ram is using force to make Gopal do his work. Gopal is crying and protesting ; he is saying that it is time for bed and that he will do the work tomorrow. If a boy has no pleasure in reading what is the use of making him do his reading by force ? It will do him no good.

H. Gopal is ill in bed and has to take a bitter medicine. He will not take the medicine himself. Force is necessary. The father has a grip of his hands and nose and the mother is putting the medicine into his mouth. The father and the mother are making Gopal take the medicine by force because if he does not take it he will not get well quickly. Force is necessary.

I. Two policemen are taking a man to a police station. The man is protesting ; he is saying that he is not a thief and the policemen have no right to take him to a police station. But the policemen have no doubt that he is a thief. The man is saying that he will not go to the police station. That is why the policemen are using force to take him to the police station.

J. When a person does not do his duty force has

sometimes to be used to make him do it. A boy has sometimes to be forced to do his school-work ; or he may have to be forced to take a bitter medicine when he is ill ; or he may have to be forced to go to bed when it is time for bed. Force, however, has sometimes no effect on a boy. It is not possible to make a boy take an interest in books by forcing him to do reading.

K. When a country is attacked force has to be used to keep the enemy out. That is the duty of the army, the navy and the air force. These are the instruments through which force is used to keep the country safe from the enemy. That is why the army, the navy and the air force are sometimes named the armed forces of a country.

A1 : What two things has every soldier to have a knowledge of ?

2 : What is this officer doing ?

3 : What is he giving the soldiers an account of ?

B1 : What effect has one (another, a third) sort of gas on our skin (eyes, lips and mouth) ?

2 : Which is the worst of all the poison gases ?

3 : What is the effect of chlorine on a man's breathing ?

4 : What may be the outcome if a man gassed with chlorine does not get medical attention quickly ?

C1 : Was poison gas used in the first world war ?

2 : By whom (against whom) was it used ?

3 : What gas did the Germans make use of ?

4 : Was poison gas used in the last war ?

D1 : What is Khan attempting to do ?

2 : Why is he not able to get the nail out of the wall ?

3 : What is necessary if he is to get the nail out ?

E1 : What is Khan doing now ?

2 : Why is the wall very hard ?

3 : What is he giving the nail blows with ?

4 : Why is he not able to get the nail in ?

5 : What is necessary if he is to get the nail in ?

F1 : Where are the front wheels of this lorry ?

2 : What are the sepoys attempting to do ?

3 : How are they attempting to do this ?

4 : How deep is the drain ?

5 : What part of the lorry are the sepoys pushing ?

6 : Why aren't these sepoys able to get the wheels out of the drain ?

7 : What is necessary to put more force into the push ?

G1 : Who is this ?

2 : Does he do his work readily ? Why not ?

3 : What does Ram have to do every night after his meal ?

4 : What is Ram making Gopal do ?

5 : What is Gopal doing ?

6 : What is he saying ?

7 : Will it do Gopal any good if Ram makes him do his work by force ?

H1 : Where is Gopal ?

2 : Why will he not take the medicine himself ?

3 : What is necessary to make him take the medicine ?

4 : What has Ram a grip of ?

5 : What is the mother doing ?

6 : Why are the father and mother making him take the medicine by force ?

7 : What is necessary to make him take the medicine ?

I1 : Where are these policemen taking the man ?

2 : What is the man saying ?

3 : Why are the policemen using force to take the man to the police station ?

J1 : When has force to be used sometimes ?

2 : What has a boy to be forced to do sometimes ?

3 : Is it possible to make a boy take an interest in reading by using force ?

K1 : What has to be used to keep an enemy out when a country is attacked ?

2 : Whose duty is this ?

3 : Why are the army, navy and air force named the armed forces of a country ?

P1 : What is the effect of very great heat on a solid ?

S : Heat on solid : heat on liquid, cold on gas, cold on liquid.

2 : What effect has (quinine on malaria) ?

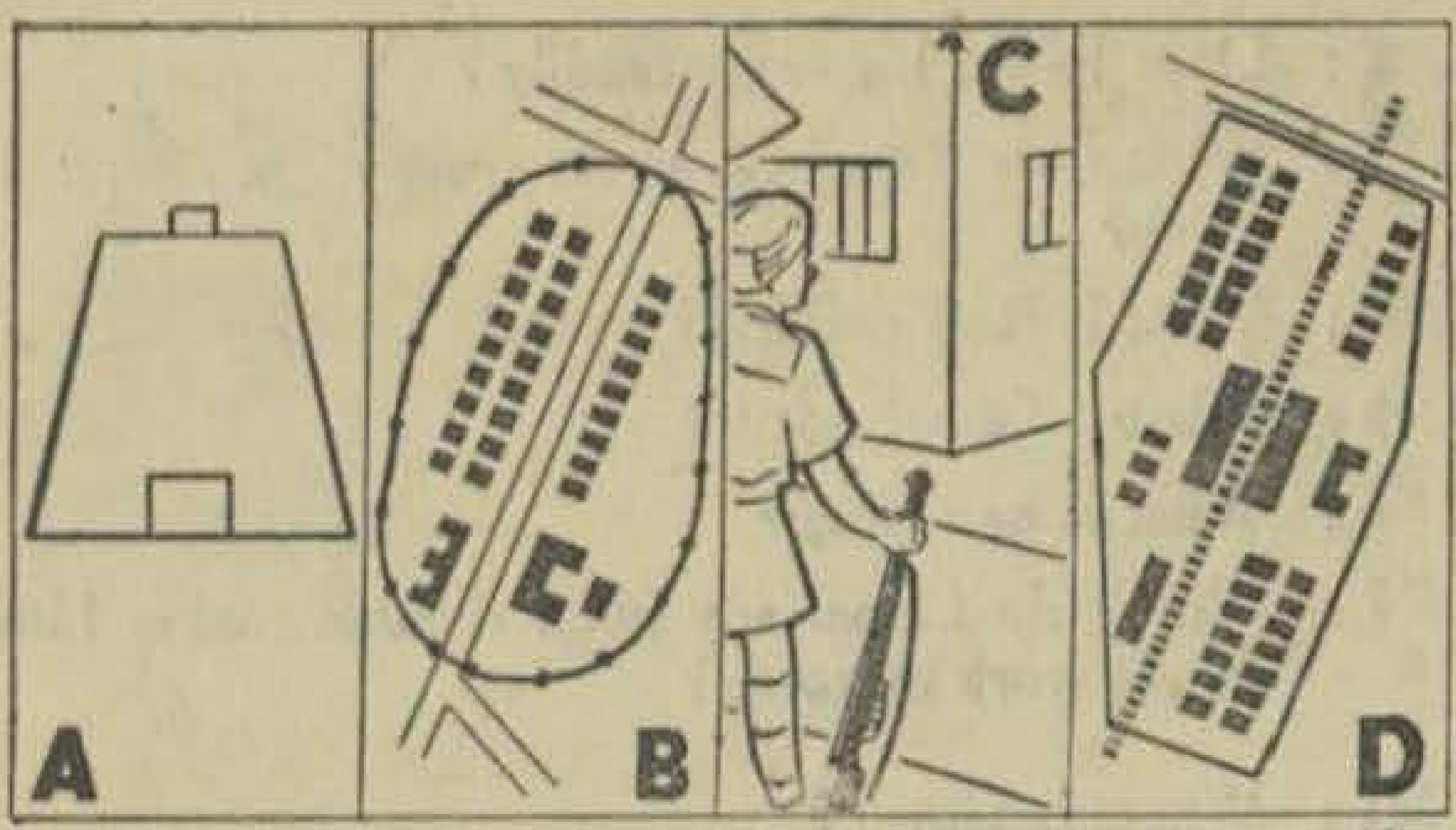
S : Quinine on malaria : D.D.T. on insects, penicillin on wounds

3 : Last night there was a 'cyclone'. The force of the wind was so great that (a number of buildings were damaged).

S : A number of, etc. : trees were uprooted, vehicles were overturned, men and animals were badly wounded.

Unit 46 : An Air Raid

limit, kiss, shake, burst



A. This is a hockey field in a military station. The four edges of the hockey field are marked by four lines. The space made by these four lines is the hockey field. Every part of the hockey field is within these four lines. No part of the hockey field is outside these four lines. The four lines are the limits of the hockey field.

B. This line goes right round the military station. All the station buildings, like the sepoys' quarters, the C.O.'s office, the wash-house and the cook-house, are inside this line. No part of the military station is outside this line. This line is the limit of the military station. A sepoy is free to go anywhere within the limits of the military station at any time. But if he has business outside the station limits at night he will have to make a special request for a pass.

C. In every town where there is a military station certain parts of the town are 'out of bounds' and certain parts are 'in bounds'. No soldier may go to any part of the town which is out of bounds without special authority from the C.O. The part of the town which is to the right of the building in the picture is out of bounds and the part of the town which is to the left of the building is in bounds. The building is the limit up to which a soldier may go without special authority from his C.O.

D. This is the line marking the limits of the town where the station is. Every part of the town is within these limits. Sometimes traders have to make a small payment to the town authorities on goods coming into the town. This payment is generally made at one of the police 'chowkies' which are put up at some of the points on the limits of the town.

E. It is not only a hockey field or a military station or a town which has limits. There are a number of other things of a different sort which have limits as well. For example, there is a limit to the amount of food which it is possible for a man to have. Let us say that you are not able to take more than twenty chapatis or a full plate of rice at a time. Then twenty chapatis or a full plate of rice would be the limit for you.

F. The amount of food which it is possible for a man to have in a day is limited. The amount of work which a man is able to do in a day is limited. But there are other things which have no limit, which are unlimited. For example, it would be true of some men to say that there is no limit to their desire for money or gold. The greater the amount of money which they have the greater is their desire for still more money. Their desire for money has no limit ; it is unlimited.



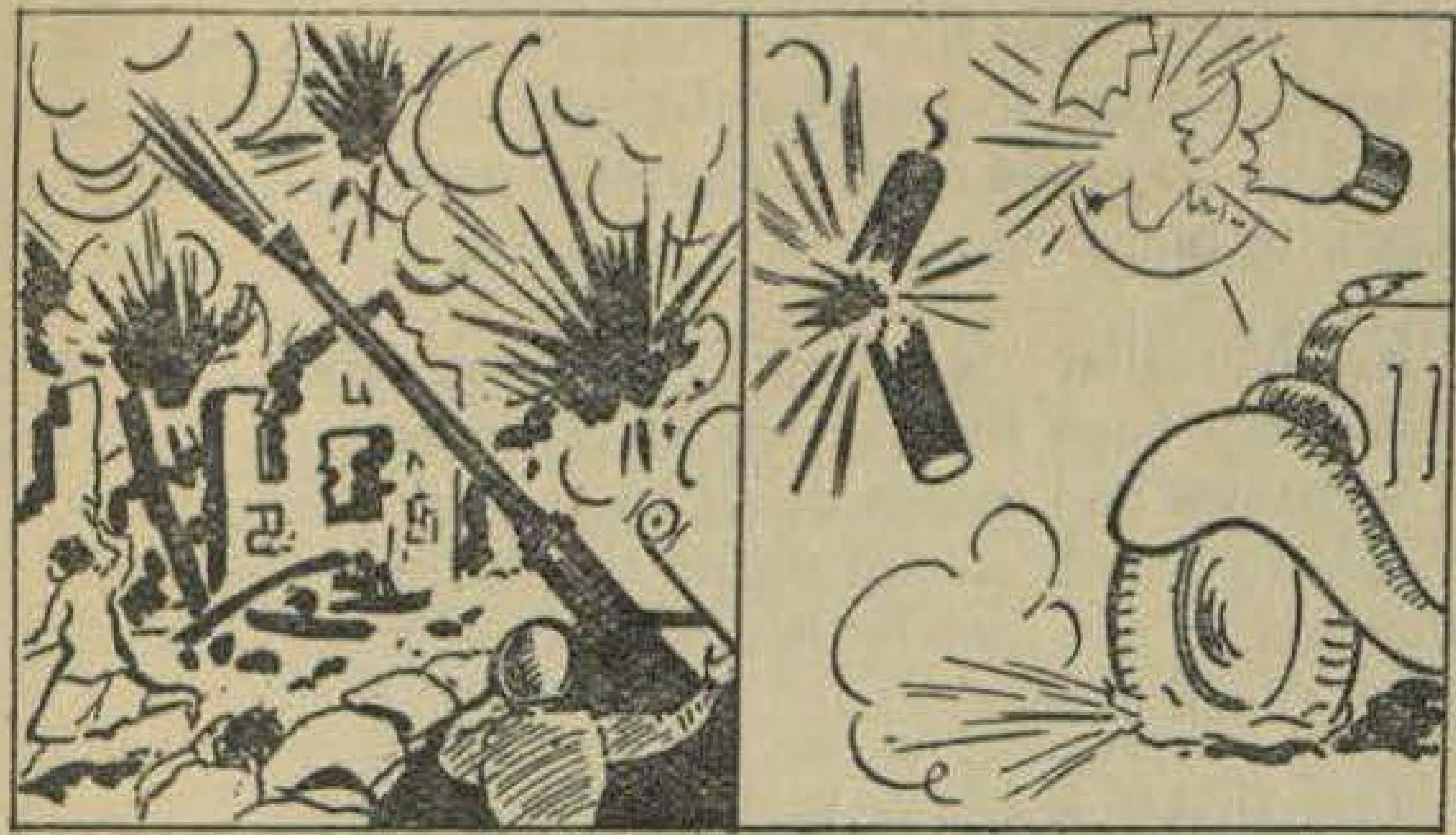
G. A sepoy has come across a friend. The two men are meeting after a long time. They are so pleased and happy to see one another that they have put their arms round one another. This way of 'greeting' is very common among persons in North India.

H. Here is another way of greeting a friend. The British soldier has been away from England for a long time. He is now very happy to see the girl to whom he is going to get married. He has put his arms round her, and is giving her a kiss on the lips. This way of greeting is very common in Europe and America. But in India it is never seen. In India you will never see a man and a woman kissing one another in public.

I. Here is a third way of greeting someone. These Indian officers are seeing one another for the first time after four years. They have not put their arms round one another. They are not kissing. They are gripping one another by the hand and giving it a shake ; they are shaking one another's hands. They are saying to one another, "How do you do" and "How is your family" and things like that. Shaking hands as a way of greeting is becoming very common in India.

J. There is another sort of 'shaking' which does not give quite so much pleasure. This is the sort of shaking which your body does when the weather is very cold and you have to get up early for your morning parade. Have you ever had that feeling ? Not only your hands but every part of your body is shaking.

K. What is the effect of fear on a man's body ? Only a very small number of soldiers have experience of fear. But civilians are different. They have a good idea of what fear is. When there is fear in a man's heart his legs will go on shaking till his fear has gone away. Such a man, we say, is shaking with fear.



46

L. A Japanese air raid is going on over this little town between India and Burma. Bombs are dropping from the air. And anti-aircraft guns are being fired up into the air. When the bombs come into touch with the road or the roof of a building they go off with a loud noise, and bits of stone, brick, glass and 'shrapnel' are sent with great force in all directions. In other words when the bomb comes into touch with the road or the roof of a building there is an 'explosion' or a burst.

M. These men have never been in an air raid before. This is their first experience of an air-raid. They have certainly seen other sorts of bursts before. They may have seen crackers bursting (going off with a loud noise) on Divali day; they may have seen the tube of a motor car wheel bursting when there is a puncture in the tyre; they may even have seen an electric bulb bursting when dropped on the floor. But this is the first time they have seen bombs bursting on the road or on the roofs of buildings.

A1: What is this?
2: How are the four edges of the field marked?
3: What is the hockey field?
4: What are the limits of the hockey field?
5: Why do we say that these are the limits of the hockey field?

B1: Where does this line go?
2: What is this line?
3: Why do we say that it is the limit of the station?
4: Within what limits is a sepoy free to go anywhere?
5: When has he to make a request for a pass?

C1: To what parts of a town may a soldier go without special authority?
2: When is special authority needed?
3: Which part of the town is out of (in) bounds?

D1: What is this line?
2: Why do you say that this is the line marking the limits of the town?
3: To whom have traders to make a payment on goods coming into the town?
4: Where is this payment generally made?
5: Where are the chowkies put up?

E1: Is there a limit to the amount of food which it is possible for a man to have?
2: How much food (rice, chapatis, etc.) are you able to take at one meal? Is that your limit?

F1: Is the amount of food which it is possible for a man to have in a day unlimited?
2: Is the amount of work which a man is able to do in a day unlimited?
3: Give one example of a thing which has no limit, which is unlimited?
4: Why do you say that there is no limit to the desire of some men for money or gold?

G1: Whom has this sepoy come across?
2: How happy are they to see one another?
3: Where is this way of 'greeting' very common?

H1: Who is this? And this?
2: Why is he so happy to see her?
3: Where has he put his arms?
4: Where is he kissing her?
5: Where is this way of greeting very common?

I1: How long have these two officers not seen one another?
2: Have they put their arms round one another?
3: Are they kissing one another?
4: What are they doing?

J1: What is another sort of shaking which does not give us so much pleasure?
2: What part of your body is shaking?

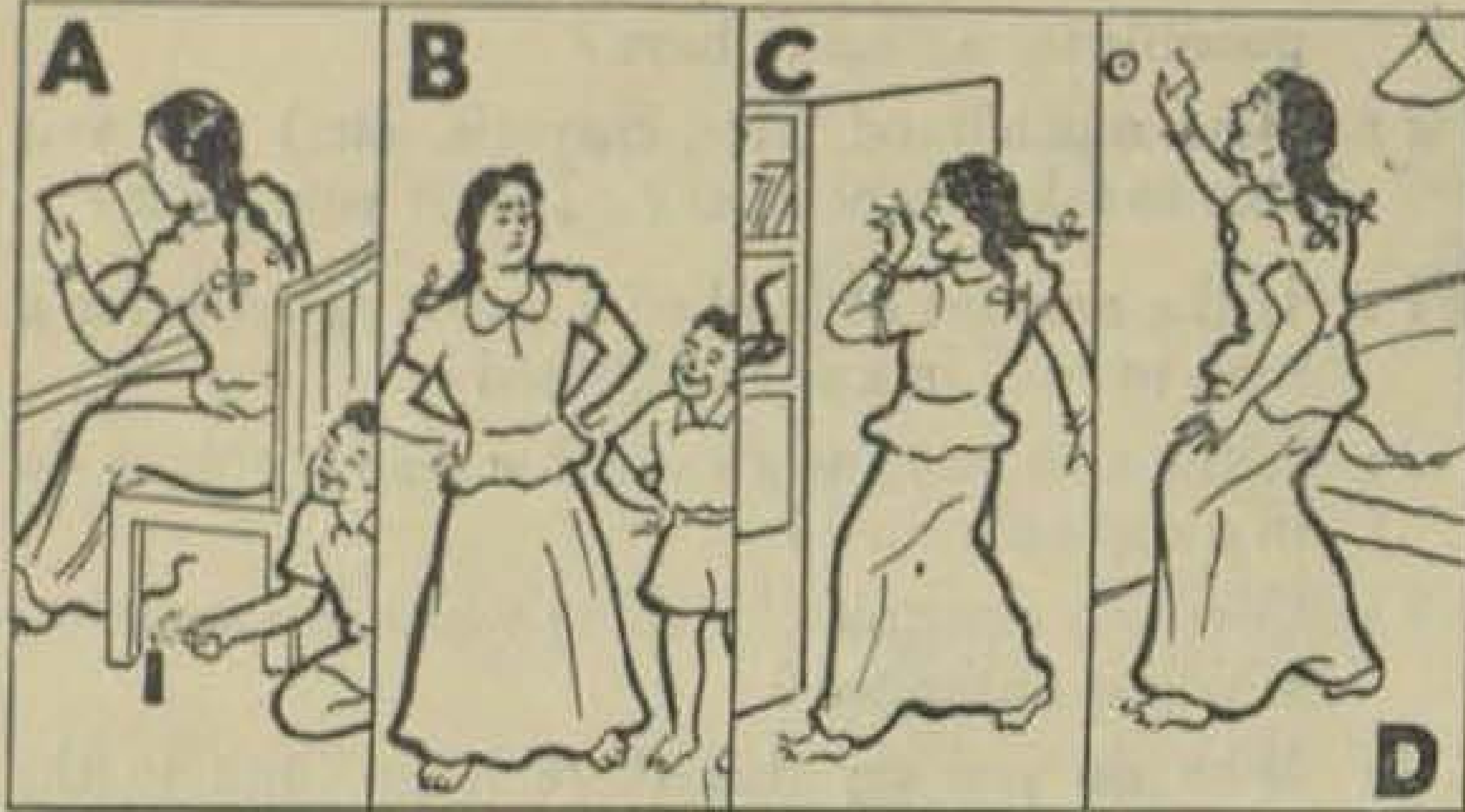
K1: Have soldiers experience of fear?
2: What is the effect of fear on a man's body?
3: What do we say of such a man?

L1: Where is this town?
2: What is going on over this town?
3: What are dropping from the air?
4: Where are anti-aircraft guns being fired?
5: When do the bombs go off with a loud noise?
6: What are sent with great force in all directions?
7: What takes place when a bomb comes into touch with the road or the roof of a building?

M1: Is this the men's first experience of an air-raid?
2: What is one word for 'going off with a loud noise'?
3: What have these men seen bursting?
4: What other things have these men seen bursting?

Unit 47 : False Legs and Arms

shock, violent, natural



A. Kamala, Gopal's sister, is seated at a table quietly reading a book. Gopal is on the floor at the back of her seat. There is a cracker in front of him, and he is putting a match to it. In a minute there will be a burst ; the cracker will go off with a loud noise. Kamala has no idea that Gopal is going to let off a cracker.

B. The cracker has gone off with a loud noise. Bang ! Kamala is off her seat ; the cracker going off with a sudden loud noise gave her a shock. Her legs are still shaking. Any loud noise will give most of us a shock, specially if we have no idea that there is going to be one.

C. Kamala has another shock. She was going to put the book back in the cupboard before going to bed when suddenly she saw a snake. An angry snake in a cupboard is such a surprising thing that her sudden discovery gave her a shock. She has taken a step back. One of her hands is stretched out and the other hand is in front of her mouth. There is a look of shock and surprise on her face.

D. Kamala has still another shock. She was putting out the electric light before going to bed. Her fingers were a little wet and when she put them on the button she got a shock. It was very foolish of her to put out the light when her fingers were wet.



E. Sami had hopes that he would be made an N.C.O. He kept saying his record was so good that he was certain that he would be made an N.C.O. But a letter has come to say that he has not been made an N.C.O. Someone is giving him the news. It is a great shock to Sami.

F. Mudaliar was very good at shooting. He had every hope that he would come first in the test. The names and marks of all the sepoys who took the test have now been put up on the board. Mudaliar is shocked to see that he has not come first. This is a great shock to him.

G. Reddi had not had any leave for three years. So when he sent in a request for leave he had every hope that he would be given at least two weeks. But here is an officer giving Reddi the news that no-one is to have leave for another six months. Reddi is greatly shocked at the news.

H. There are two sorts of danger in an air-raid—there is the danger from the bombs and there is the danger from the 'blast' which is caused by the bombs. If you are very near the place where an explosion takes place you may get a violent (very hard) blow on the head or some other part of the body. If the blow is very violent you may be badly wounded and may have to be taken to hospital. Then there is the danger from blast. If there is not much force in the blast, if, that is to say, the blast is not violent, it may not do much damage. But if the blast is very violent a great number of persons may be badly wounded.



I. This is a picture of a wounded soldier in a military hospital. He seems quite healthy. Every part of his body seems to be quite all right. But if you take another look at his right leg you will see that it is not a natural leg ; it is a leg made of wood and metal. He is able to take this leg off when he goes to bed or when he has his bath. And he is able to put it on again when he gets up or after his bath. His right leg was cut off in a very violent fight with the Japanese in Burma. And it seemed as if he would not be able to do any more work and would have to go about on one leg for the rest of his existence. But medical men made a new leg for him, and he is now able to get about and do his work as if it was his natural leg.

J. Take a good look at this man's head. He was badly wounded in North Africa; a bullet took off a part of the cover of his head. But a medical man put a cover made of silver on that part of the head which was wounded. There is hair on the natural cover of his head. But on that part of the head which has no natural cover there is no hair.

K. This woman has thick and beautiful hair and good white teeth; she seems very young. It is her hair and her teeth which make her seem young. But she is not young. The hair which she has on is not natural hair; it is false hair. She got it at a store. And the teeth which she has on are not natural teeth; they are false teeth. She got them from a dentist.

L. If you give a man a blow for no reason at all he will be very angry. We say that this is very natural. Most men get angry if they are given a blow without reason; that is how God has made us. If a baby has a pain in the stomach he will probably go on crying. We say this is very natural. Most babies go on crying if they have a pain in the stomach; that is how God has made them. It is natural for a man to be pleased when he gets promotion; that is one of his qualities. It is natural for a man to be sad when someone who is dear to him is very ill. It is natural for a businessman to be happy when he makes a good profit. When soldiers do not get good food and drink they naturally make a protest. When soldiers do not get enough cigarettes or clothing they are naturally disgusted. And soldiers who have been fighting for years without a stop naturally have a desire to get back to their homes as quickly as possible.

A1: Who is this seated at a table?
2: What is Gopal doing to the cracker which is in front of him?
3: What will there be in a minute?

B1: Where is Kamala now?
2: What gave her a shock?
3: Does every loud noise give us a shock?

C1: Who is this?
2: What was she going to do?
3: What did she see?
4: What gave her a shock?
5: Why did her sudden discovery give her a shock?
6: What sort of look is there on her face?

D1: Who is this?
2: What was she doing?
3: Why did she get a shock?

E1: What was Sami hoping for?
2: What does the letter say?
3: Why is it a shock to him?

F1: What was Mudaliar good at?
2: What was he hoping for?
3: What is on the board?
4: Has he come first?

G1: How long had Reddi not had any leave?
2: Why had he every hope that he would be given at least two weeks' leave?
3: What news is the officer giving Reddi?
4: How does Reddi take the news?

H1: What two sorts of danger are there in an air-raid?
2: What sort of blow may you get if you are very near the place of explosion?
3: What may be the effect of a very violent blow?
4: What is the second danger in an air-raid?
5: What is another way of saying that blast has not much force in it?
6: When may blast not do much damage?
7: What would be the effect of a violent blast?

I1: Who is this?
2: Is he ill?
3: Is there anything wrong with his body?
4: Has he two legs?
5: Why do you say that his right leg is not a natural leg?
6: What is another way in which this leg is different from a natural leg?
7: Is this new leg of any use to him?

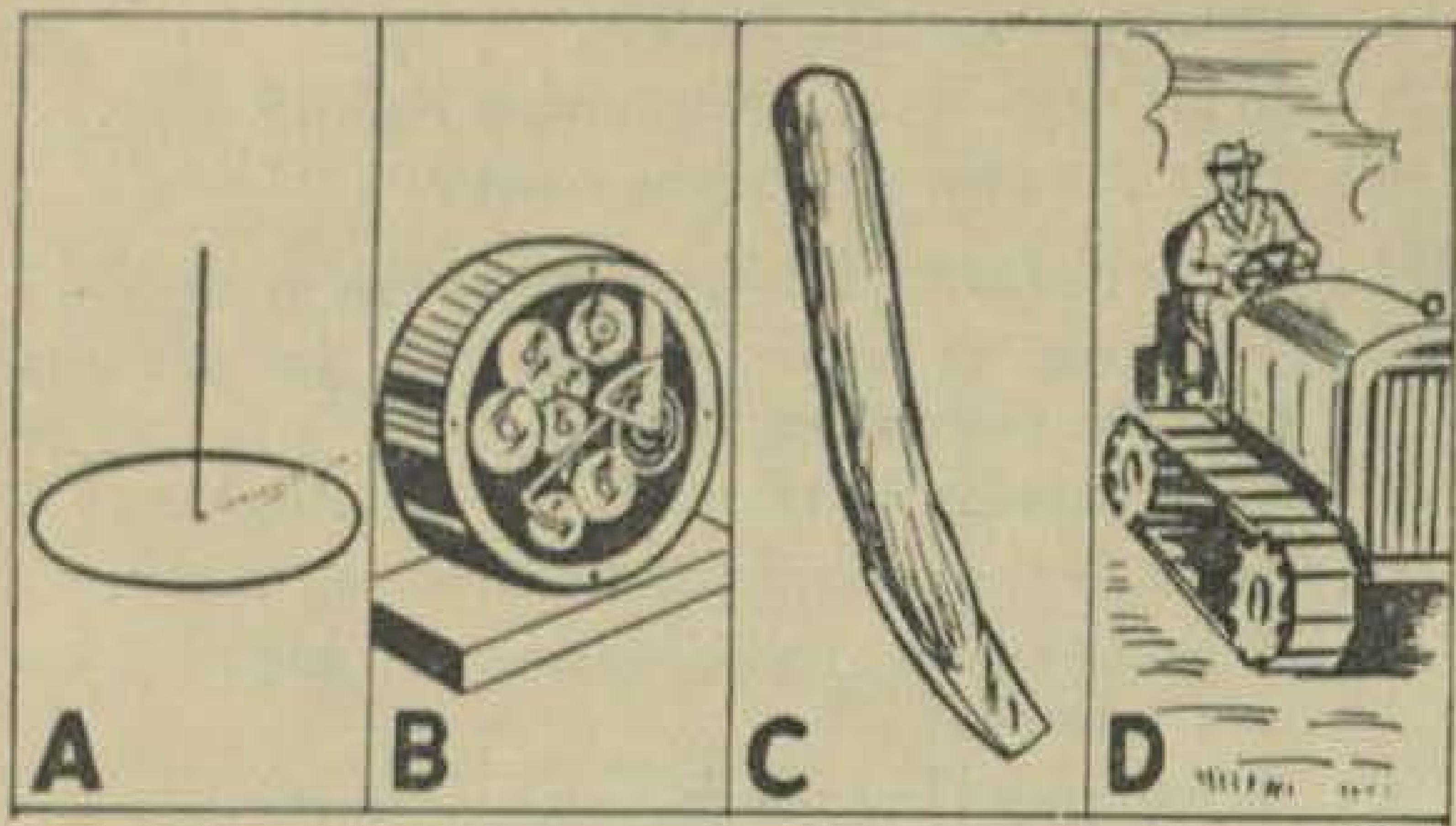
J1: Where was this man badly wounded?
2: What did the doctors put on the part of the head which was wounded?
3: How is the natural cover of his head different from the part which is not natural?

K1: Is the hair which she has on natural hair or false hair?
2: Where did she get her false hair?
3: Are her teeth natural teeth or false teeth?
4: Why do you say that they are not natural teeth?

L1: If you give a man a blow for no reason at all he will be angry. We say that this is natural. Why?
2: What will a baby do if he has a pain in the stomach?
3: Why do we say that this is very natural?
4: Is it natural or unnatural for a man to be pleased when he gets promotion?
5: Why is it natural?
6: Is it natural or unnatural for a man to be sad when someone who is very dear to him is ill?
7: Why is it natural?
8: Why is it natural for a businessman to be happy when he makes a profit?
9: When do soldiers naturally make a protest?
10: When are soldiers naturally disgusted?
11: When do soldiers naturally have a desire to get back to their homes as quickly as possible?

Unit 48 : Simple and Complex

simple, complex, machine, operation, automatic

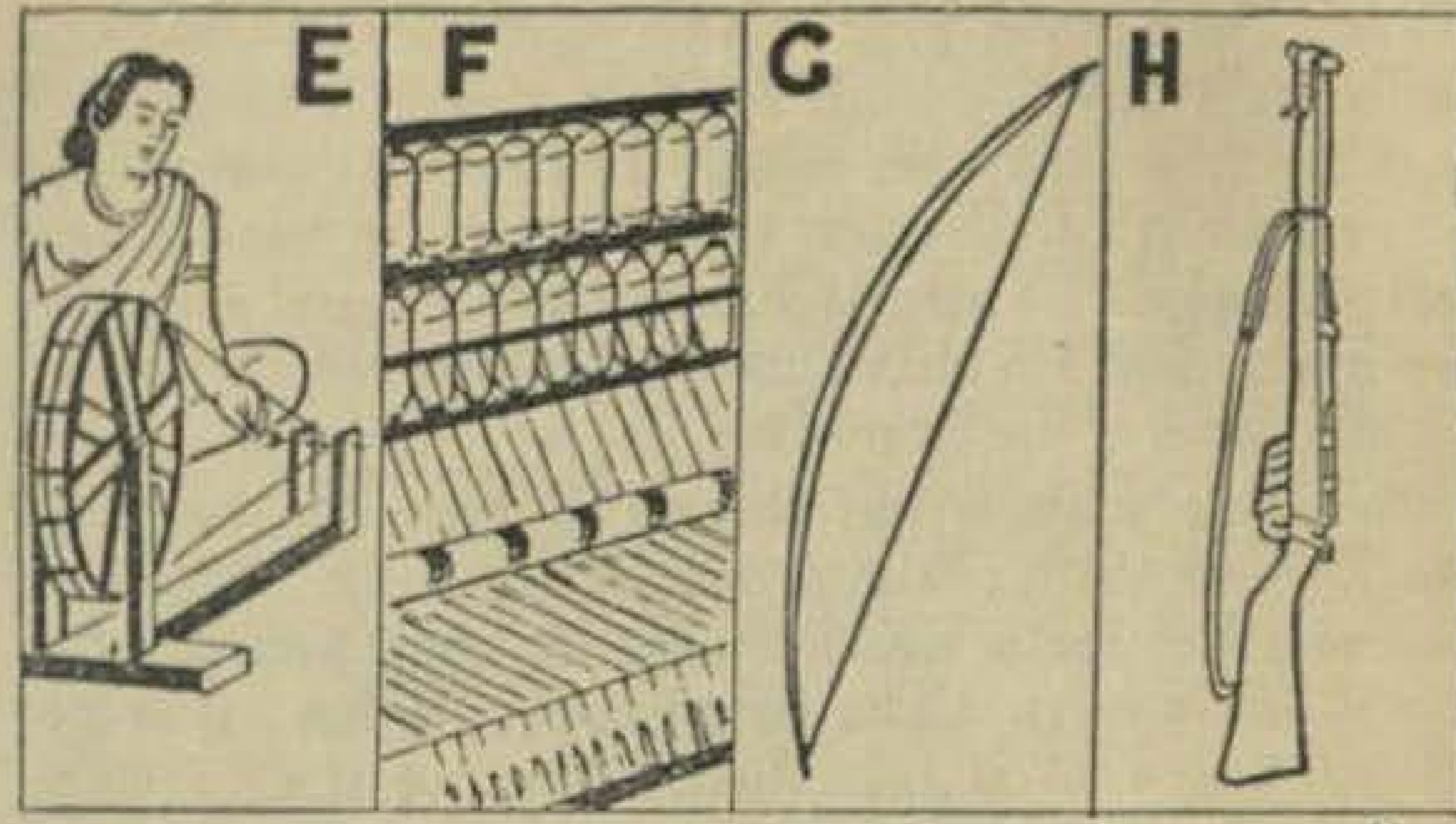


A. This is a sort of clock which gives us the time. There is a circle on the earth, and a thin long stick is fixed in the earth in the middle of the circle. We get the time by noting where the shade made by the stick on the earth is pointing. This is a very simple instrument for giving the time. There is only a circle on the earth and a stick in the middle.

B. Here is a picture of the sort of clock which is now used for giving us the time. Take a look into the inside of the clock. There are a great number of wheels and springs and short thin rods. It is not a simple instrument like the clock in picture A ; it is a very complex instrument. It has a great number of different parts. Making a clock like the one in picture A is a very simple business. But making a clock like the one in picture B is not at all a simple business ; it is a very complex business. No special training is necessary for anyone to be able to make a clock like the one in picture A. But a long and a very special training is necessary for anyone to be able to make a clock like the one in picture B.

C. This is a picture of the sort of plough which is generally used on Indian farms today. It is only a long thick rod, to one end of which an iron blade is fixed. It is not a complex instrument ; it is a very simple instrument. It has only two parts : a long thick rod and an iron blade. Almost anyone would be able to make a plough like this, without long training. Making a plough of this sort is not a complex business ; it is a very simple business.

D. Here is a tractor which is used on a great number of farms in Europe and America today. It has a great number of different parts. Take a look at the engine—there are a great number of wheels and pipes and rods and chains. This is not a simple instrument ; it is a very complex machine. Making a tractor like this is not a simple business ; it is a very complex business. There are a great number of different parts to be made, and a long and a special training is necessary to be able to make them.



E. This is a machine which was used by farmers in India to make cotton thread (yarn) for their cloth. It is still very widely used in the countryside today. It is a 'spinning wheel'. The spinning wheel is not a complex machine ; it is a very simple machine ; there is a frame, a wheel and a 'spindle'—only three parts. Making yarn on a spinning wheel is not a complex job for which special training is necessary ; it is a very simple job which anyone may do without special training. Making a spinning wheel is not a complex business ; it is a very simple business. One or two bits of wood, a hammer, a 'chisel' and some bits of cord are the only materials which are needed for the making of a spinning wheel. With a little training almost anyone would be able to make a spinning wheel.

F. This is the sort of machine which is now used in the mills of India to make yarn from cotton. Take a good look at it and see what a great number of parts it has—wheels, rods and belts. This is not a simple machine ; it is a very complex machine. Making a machine like this is not a simple business ; it is a very complex business. It takes a long time to make, and a great number of different sorts of material are necessary.

G. This is the sort of weapon with which men did their fighting in early times. It is a 'bow'. It is not a complex weapon ; it is a very simple weapon. It has only two parts—a cord and a stick.

H. This is the sort of weapon with which we do our fighting today. It is a rifle. A rifle is not a simple weapon ; it is a very complex weapon. It has a great number of different parts—the butt, the barrel, the trigger, the bolt, the backsight, the foresight and so on. Making a rifle is a more complex business than making a bow. A great amount of different sorts of material is necessary and the workers have to be specially trained.

I. A great part of our work today is done by machine. We have machines for cleaning rice, machines for making cloth, machines for lifting things. If you go to a factory where paper is made you will see a machine for every operation (bit of work) which is necessary for producing paper. Even such operations as the operation of drying the paper, the operation of polishing the paper, the operation of cutting the paper,

and the operation of folding the paper are all done by machine. In Europe and America today even farming operations like ploughing the fields, putting the seeds into the earth, cutting the plants, getting the grain separate from its cover and storing the grain are all done by machine. Even the operation of milking a cow is sometimes done by a machine.

J. Some of these machines are so made that they are able to do their work without much help from man. Such machines are named automatic machines. At some railway stations there are machines on which you are able to see what your weight is. You have only to put an anna bit in a hole in the machine, and you get a small card on which your weight is put down. There is no-one at the machine to make it go—to put it in operation; it does the work by itself. It is an automatic machine and does its work automatically. There are other sorts of automatic machines at railway stations; there is an automatic machine from which you get your platform tickets. There is no-one at the machine to put it in operation. You have only to put an anna bit in an opening and you get your platform ticket automatically. The same sort of automatic machine may be used not only for getting platform tickets but for getting matches or cigarettes or chocolates from. In fact, such automatic machines are in very wide use in Europe and America.

A1: What is this?
2: What is there on the earth?
3: What is there in the middle of the circle?
4: How do we get the time from the stick?
5: Is this a simple instrument or a complex instrument?
6: Why do you say it is a simple instrument?

B1: What sort of clock is this?
2: What is there inside the clock?
3: Is this a simple instrument or a complex instrument?
4: Why do you say it is a complex instrument?
5: Is making a clock like the one in A a simple business or a complex business?
6: Why do you say it is a simple business?
7: Is making a clock like the one in B a simple business or a complex business?
8: Why do you say it is a complex business?

C1: What sort of plough is this?
2: Is it a simple instrument or a complex instrument?
3: Why do you say that it is a simple instrument?
4: Is making a plough like this a simple business or a complex business?
5: Why do you say that it is a simple business?

D1: Where is this sort of tractor used?
2: Is this a simple instrument?
3: Why is making a tractor like this a complex business?

E1: What is this sort of machine used for?
2: What name do we give it?
3: Why do we say this is a simple machine?
4: Why do we say that making yarn on a spinning wheel is a simple job and not a complex job?
5: Why do we say that making a spinning wheel is a simple job and not a complex job?

F1: What is this sort of machine used for?
2: Why is this not a simple machine but a complex machine?
3: Why is the making of this machine a complex business?

G1: What name do we give this weapon?
2: What did men do with their bows in early times?
3: Why do we say it is not a complex weapon but a simple weapon?

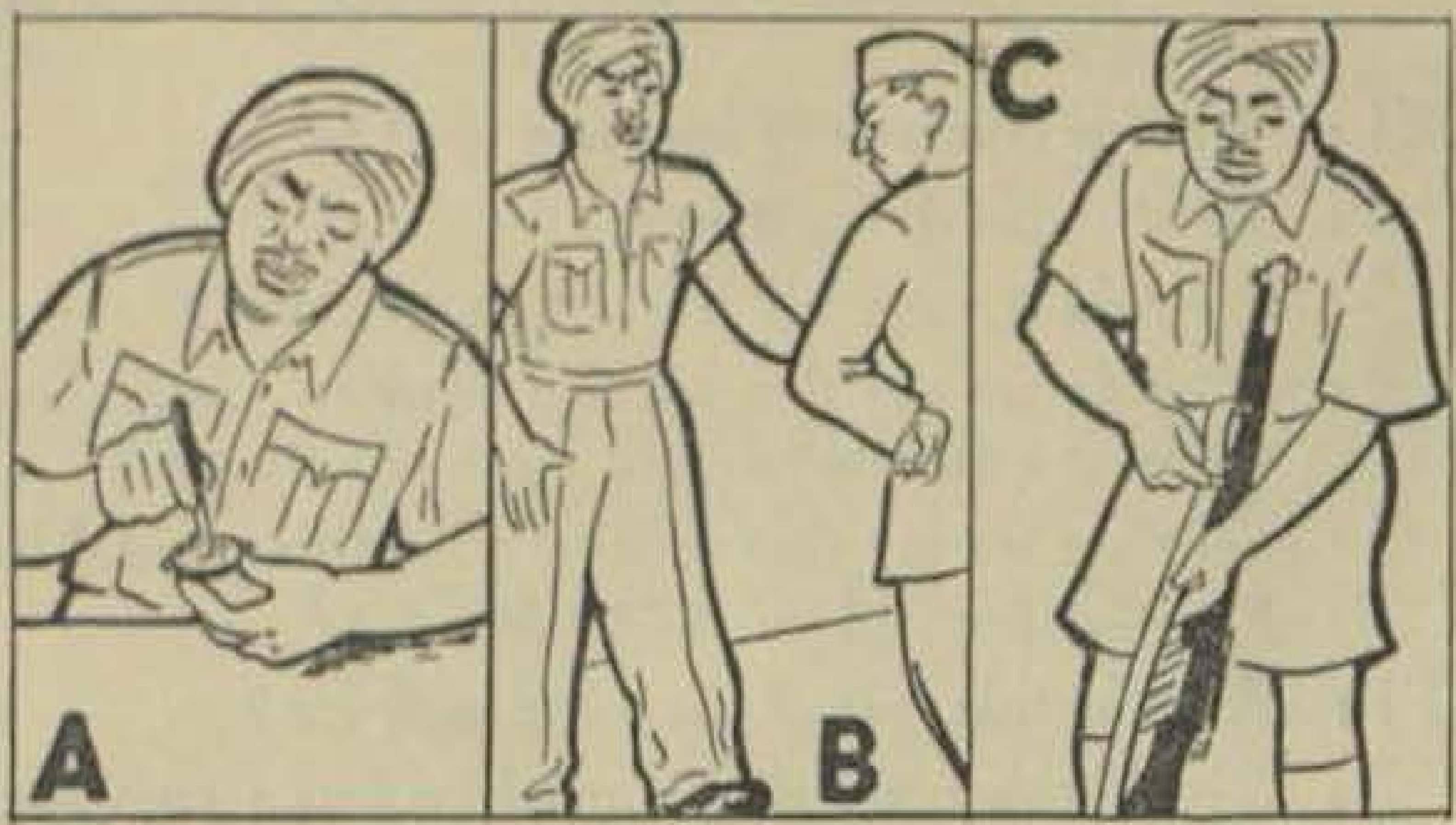
H1: What name do we give this weapon?
2: Why do we say that a rifle is not a simple weapon but a complex weapon?
3: Which is the more complex business—making a bow or making a rifle?
4: Why do you say that making a rifle is a more complex business than making a bow?

I1: How is a great part of our work done today?
2: What different sorts of machines have we?
3: What is another name for a bit of work?
4: How is the operation of drying the paper (polishing the paper, cutting the paper, folding the paper) done?
5: How are farming operations in Europe and America done today?
6: What different farming operations are done by machines?

J1: How are some of these machines made?
2: What name do we give to such machines?
3: Give one example of an automatic machine which you may see at a railway station.
4: What do you do to get your weight?
5: Is there anyone at the machine to put it in operation?
6: What is another sort of automatic machine which you may see at a railway station?
7: Is there anyone at the machine to put it in operation?
8: What do you do to get a platform ticket?

Unit 49 : Sami in Hospital

adjustment, rule, conscious, observation



A. Something has gone wrong with Sami's watch, and he is attempting to put it right with a knife. It goes ten minutes quicker than the right time every day. Sami is moving a little wheel inside the watch with the point of his knife. He is making an adjustment in the watch. When the adjustment is made the watch will be all right.

B. Sami is disgusted because though he has made a number of protests to the N.C.O. some of the equipment which he has been given is not of the right size. The trousers are very long ; the arms of his shirt are very short ; the trousers are loose ; the shirt is tight. To make them the right size adjustments will have to be made in the shirt and the trousers. The trousers will have to be made shorter and tighter ; the arms of the shirt will have to be made longer, and the shirt itself will have to be made wider.

C. Sami is getting ready for morning parade. The sling of his rifle is very loose. When a soldier is on parade the sling of his rifle has to be very tight. That is why Sami is making an adjustment in his sling ; he is making it shorter.

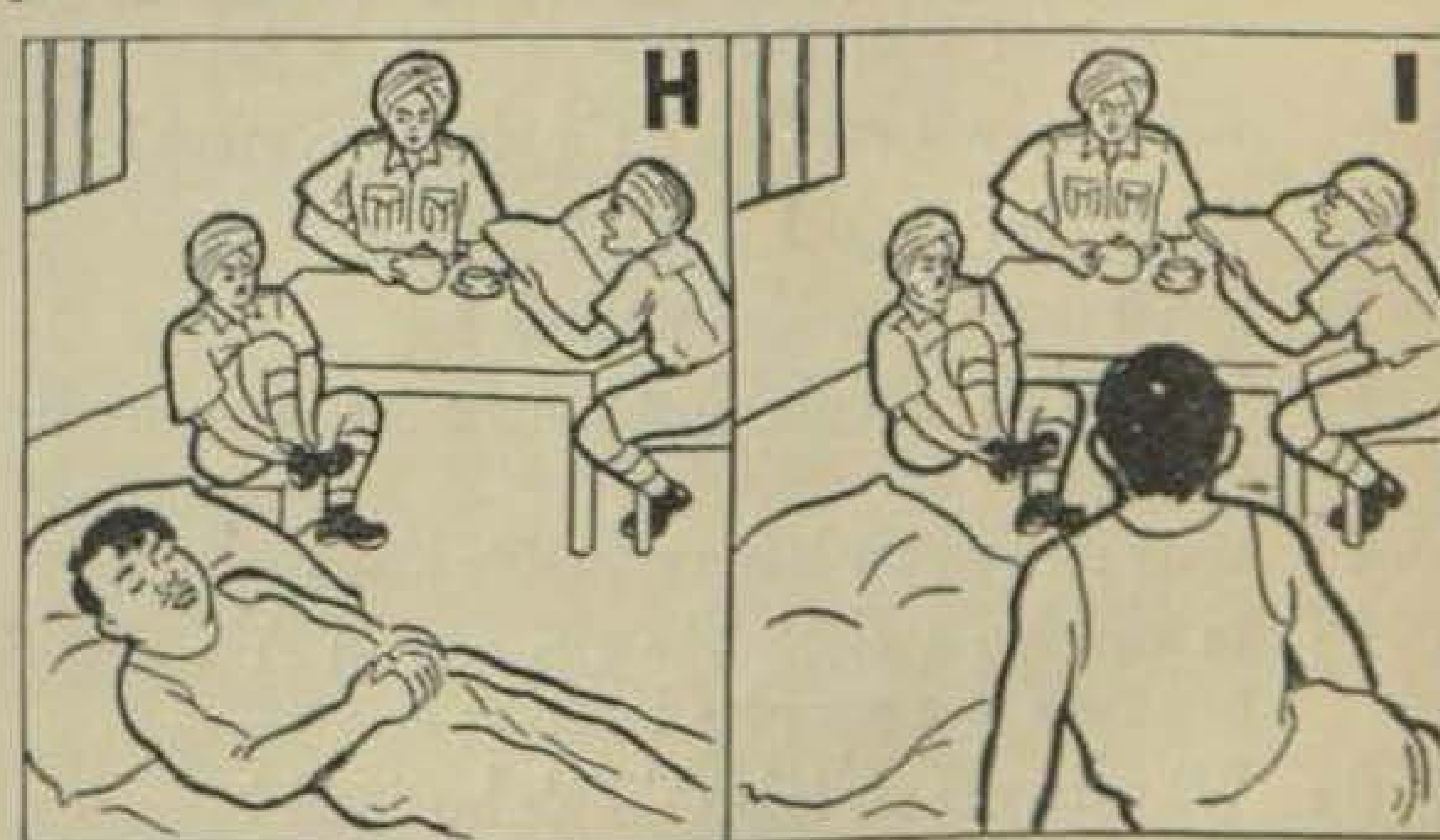


D. Sami is now getting ready to go to another station with his platoon. The other station is only three miles away and the platoon will be going on foot. When soldiers are marching from one station to another the rifles are kept hanging from their arms or resting on their backs. So slings have to be long. That is why Sami is making another adjustment in the sling. This time he is making the sling longer. When the adjustment is made he will be able to put the rifle on his back or have it hanging from his arm without trouble.

E. Sami is getting ready for a shooting practice at the shooting range. The target is at a distance of 400 yards. Sami is making an adjustment in the level of the backsight ; he is pushing the backsight farther up.

F. Something has gone wrong with Sami's rifle ; that is why he has come to the armourer. The blade of the foresight is not in its place in the middle ; it is a little to the left. It is the armourer who has to make the necessary adjustment this time. One has only to give the blade a push to the right to put it in the middle. But a soldier has no right to make this adjustment ; he has to take his rifle to the armourer. There is a rule that only the simplest adjustments may be made by a soldier and that if more complex adjustments are necessary the rifle has to be sent to the armourer.

G. There are certain things which a soldier may do and there are certain other things which a soldier may not do. For example, there is a rule that no soldier may go out of the barracks after lights out without the authority of the C.O. There is a rule that a soldier has to be back in his quarters before a fixed hour at night. There is a rule that no soldier may go to a part of the town which is out of bounds. There is a rule that every soldier has to 'salute' on meeting a soldier of higher rank. These are only five examples of Army rules, of which there are such a great number. If any of these rules are broken by a soldier he gets a punishment of some sort.



H. Sami is sleeping on his bed in his quarters. There are three other men in the room. Reddi is getting ready to go to the bazaar. Naidu is reading from a newspaper in a loud voice. Mudaliar is making some tea. But Sami is sleeping ; he has no idea of what is going on round him. Another way of saying this is that Sami is not conscious of what is going on round him.

I. Sami is now awake and is taking a look round. Reddi is still putting on his boots. Naidu is still reading his newspaper. Mudaliar is still making his tea. But

Sami is awake and he now has a good idea of what is going on round him. He is conscious that someone is putting on his shoes. He is conscious that there is a sound of reading in the room. He is conscious that there is a smell of tea in the air. He is now conscious of these things because he is fully awake.



J. Sami is stretched flat on the side-walk. Reddi who is by his side has got Sami's collar loose and is putting smelling salts to Sami's nose. A number of persons round them are looking on. Is Sami sleeping? No, he is not sleeping, but his eyes are shut and he is breathing quickly. He is not conscious of what is going on round him. How did this come about? While Sami and Reddi were walking on the road a small boy gave Sami a violent blow on the head with a stone. The blow was so violent that Sami became unconscious then and there and went flat on the side-walk.

K. The smelling salts have had their effect and Sami is opening his eyes slowly. He has become conscious again and is making a request for a glass of water. How long was Sami unconscious? He was unconscious for about fifteen minutes.

L. Reddi and the doctor are talking to one another while Sami is sleeping in bed. The doctor has gone over every part of Sami's body and has put a dressing on Sami's head. The doctor is not able to say what he is going to do now; he has not made a decision. Sami's head may have to be cut open and the damaged part may have to be looked at. In other words, an operation may be necessary. But the doctor is not certain. The doctor says that he is not able to make a decision before having another look at the wound. Sami will have to be kept under observation.

A1: What is Sami attempting to do?
2: What is he moving the little wheel with?
3: How would you say this using the word *adjustment*?
4: When will the watch be all right?

B1: What is wrong with Sami's equipment?
2: What is wrong with the trousers (shirt)?
3: What adjustment has to be made in the trousers (shirt)?

C1: What is Sami getting ready for?
2: Is the sling of his rifle loose or tight?
3: What is Sami doing to his sling?
4: What sort of adjustment is he making?

D1: Where is Sami getting ready to go?
2: What will the platoon do with their rifles while they are on the march?
3: Why is Sami making another adjustment in the sling?
4: What adjustment is he making?

E1: What is Sami getting ready for?
2: How far is the target?
3: What is he making an adjustment in?

F1: Why has Sami come to the armourer?
2: What is wrong with the rifle?
3: Who has to make the necessary adjustment this time?
4: This is only a small adjustment. Why has a soldier to take his rifle to an armourer to make this adjustment?
5: What is the rule about simple (more complex) adjustments?

G1: There are any number of Army rules. Give one (another, third, fourth, fifth) example.
2: What do they do if any of these rules are broken?

H1: Where is Sami sleeping?
2: What is Reddi (Naidu, Mudaliar) doing?
3: Has Sami any idea of what is going on round him?
4: What is another way of saying this?

I1: Is Sami still sleeping or is he awake?
2: Has Sami any idea of what is going on round him?
3: Is he conscious that someone is putting on his shoes (there is a sound of reading in the room, there is a smell of tea in the air)?
4: Why is he conscious of these things?

J1: Where is Sami?
2: Is Sami sleeping?
3: How is his breathing?
4: Is he conscious of what is going on round him?
5: How violent was the blow?

K1: What has made Sami conscious again?
2: How long was Sami unconscious?

L1: Who is Reddi talking to?
2: Where is Sami?
3: Has the doctor made a decision?
4: What has the doctor to do before he is able to make a decision?

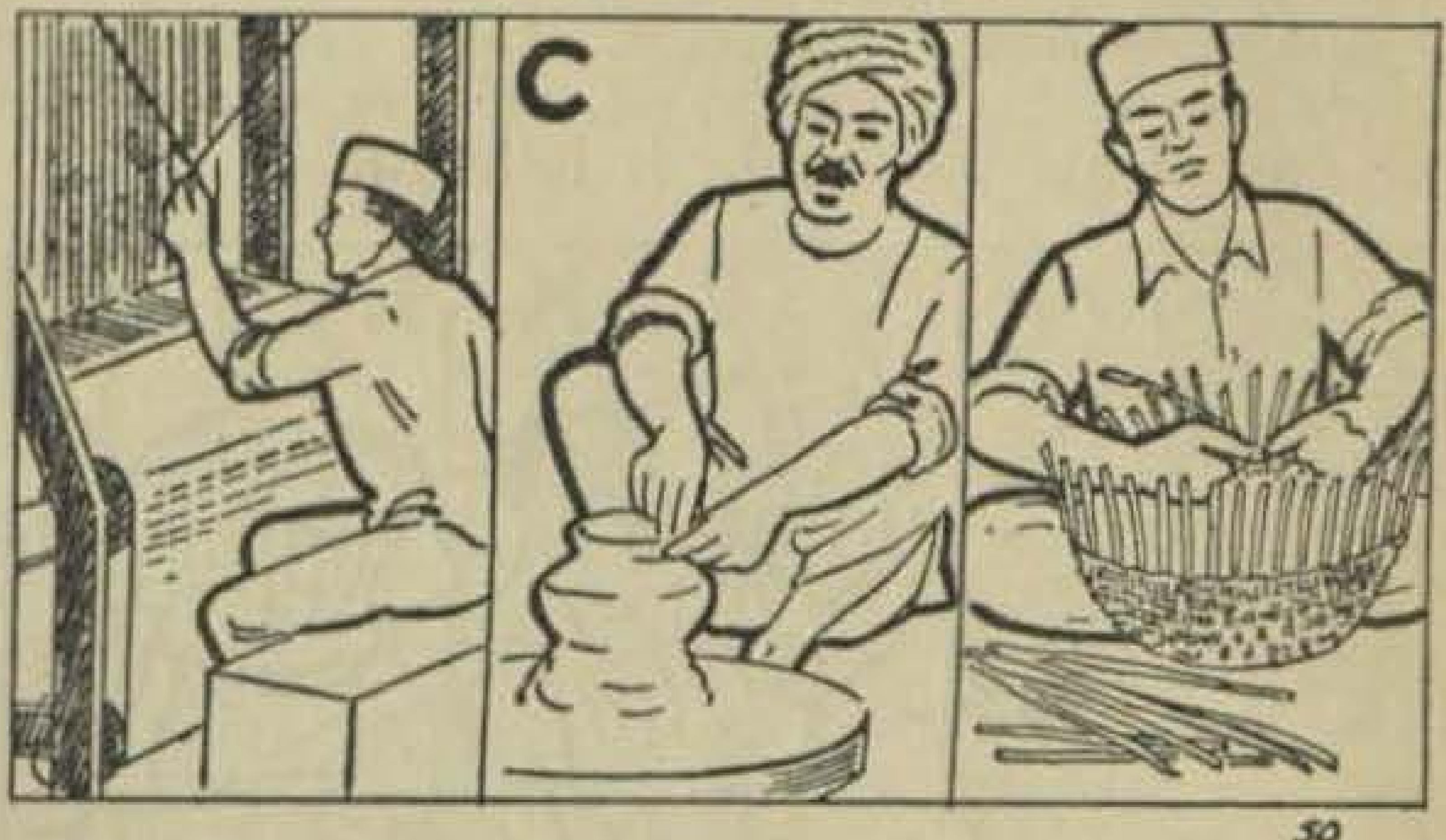
Unit 50 : Village Conditions

industry, frequent, condition



A. Mudaliar is reading a book and making notes from it. The war is over. Great numbers of soldiers are now waiting for 'demobilization'. But it will take months for the Army authorities to send the men back to their homes. There will not be much work for the men to do in the coming six months. But Mudaliar is not wasting his time; he is working hard at his books. Not a minute of his time in the Army has been wasted; Mudaliar is very hard-working. Normally it takes over a year to get a good knowledge of Roman Urdu. But with great industry Mudaliar got a knowledge of Roman Urdu in less than eight months. He is now working hard to get a knowledge of English. He says that normally it takes a year to get a good knowledge of English but with great industry it is possible to get a good knowledge of English in much less than a year. But industry is very necessary. A man may be very bright; he may have a good brain; but if he is not hard-working—if he has no industry—he will not become expert at any work. Mudaliar has a belief that any man who has industry is certain to get his reward in the end. Mudaliar has a hope that when he goes out of the Army he will get a good job in a factory or on a farm.

B. But Naidu is a different sort of man. He has no taste for work. He has no industry. When he is not on parade or cleaning his equipment he is in the recreation room or the canteen or at the bazaar. He is never at his books; he is out all the time talking or playing. Every ten or fifteen minutes there is a train to the town; there are frequent trains to the town all through the day. He goes to the bazaar three or four times a week; he goes to the bazaar very frequently. Then he goes to the pictures four or five times in a week. He goes to the pictures even more frequently than he goes to the bazaar. In the monsoon, when there is rain every two or three hours—when rain is very frequent—and it is not possible to go to the bazaar or the pictures, he goes to the recreation room. He goes to the recreation room more frequently than any of his friends. Most of his free time in the Army has been wasted. When the time comes for him to go out of the Army and when he sees that there is no good job for him he will be full of regret that he did not make better use of his free time in the Army.



C. After demobilization a man may get one of a great number of different jobs. He may get a job in the Government; he may get a job on a farm; or he may get a job in one of the factories in the town. India has a number of industries, some of which are old and others new. The three chief industries of India are the cotton industry in Bombay and Ahmedabad, where cloth is made, the jute industry of Calcutta, where 'gunny' is made, and the iron and steel industry at Jamshedpur, where iron and steel goods are made. There are a number of smaller industries, some of which are in the town and others in the country. There is, for example, a boot and shoe industry, an electric industry, a sugar industry, a glass industry, a soap industry. Then there are other industries in the village like the cloth-making industry, the pot-making industry, or the basket-making industry. Town industries are different from village industries. In the town things are made with the help of machines in great factories in which hundreds of persons do their work together. In the village things are made by hand in the home when the men and women of the family are free. Another name for this sort of industry is cottage or home industry.

D. Before the invention of machines all things were made by hand at home. Most men and women were very expert in their work, and the things which they made were strong and beautiful. They took a pleasure in their work, and the quality of the things which they made was very high. For example, there was a very wide market for Indian silk and cotton even in Europe, where Indian workers had made a name for themselves. But the great days of the Indian cottage industries are now over. In fact, the cottage industries in India are in a very bad condition. The men are not so expert as before; there is no market for the things which they make; and most of them are in debt to the village bania. The condition of these men is very bad and it is becoming worse and worse day by day. But it is possible to make their condition better if we give more attention to their needs. There are three things which we have to do to make their condition better. The village schools will

have to give them some sort of training, so that they may become more expert in their work. The co-operative societies will have to give them enough money to get new businesses started. And the Government will have to see that the men get a good price for the things which they make. If we do these three things it will be possible to make their condition better.

E. It is not only the cottage industry which is in a bad condition ; most other things in our villages are in a bad condition as well. The villagers, men and women, are in a bad condition ; as a rule they do not have enough food and they do not have enough clothing. The village animals, like the men and women, are in a bad condition ; as a rule they are thin and feeble and unable to do any hard work. The village houses are in a bad condition ; as a rule, they are small, dark and unhealthy. The village roads are in a bad condition ; as a rule they are dirty and full of pot-holes. When the rains come the roads are of little or no use. The conditions under which those in the villages are living are normally very bad. There are no doctors, no 'dawa-khanas', no schools, no playing-fields, no cinemas, no information rooms, no newspapers, no radios. These are the conditions under which the villagers have to make their homes and do their farming. When the demobilized soldier goes back to his home in the village it will be part of his duty to see that at least some of these conditions are changed and that the villagers have a happier and a more interesting existence than before.

A1 : What is Mudaliar doing ?
2 : Is the war still going on ?
3 : What are a great number of soldiers waiting for ?
4 : How long will it take to send the men back to their homes ?
5 : Will there be any work for the men to do in the coming six months ?
6 : Is Mudaliar wasting his time ?
7 : Has any of his time in the Army been wasted ?
8 : What sort of man is Mudaliar ?
9 : How long does it normally take to get a good knowledge of Urdu ?
10 : How long did it take Mudaliar to get a good knowledge of Urdu ?
11 : Why did it take him less than the normal time ?
12 : What is he working hard for now ?
13 : How long does it normally take to get a good knowledge of English ?
14 : How is it possible to get a good knowledge of English in much less than a year ?
15 : What is necessary ?
16 : What is necessary even for a bright man (a man with a good brain) to become expert at any work ?
17 : What is Mudaliar's belief ?
18 : What is Mudaliar hoping to do when he goes out of the Army ?

B1 : Is Naidu the same sort of man as Mudaliar ?
2 : Why do you say he has no industry ?
3 : What does he do all the time ?
4 : There is a train to the town every ten or fifteen minutes. What is another way of saying this ?
5 : Mudaliar goes to the bazaar three or four times a week. What is another way of saying this ?
6 : Does he go to the pictures frequently ?
7 : How frequently does he go to the pictures ?
8 : When is rain very frequent ?
9 : Why do you say rain is frequent in the monsoon ?
10 : Where does Naidu go in the monsoon ?
11 : Do his friends go with him every time ?
12 : What sort of feeling will he have when he sees there is no good job for him ?

C1 : What different sort of jobs may a man get after demobilization ?
2 : What are the three chief industries of India ?
3 : Give examples of some of our smaller industries.
4 : What other industries are there in the villages ?
5 : How are town industries different from village industries ?
6 : What is another name for 'home' industry ?

D1 : How were things made before the invention of machines ?
2 : Why were these things strong and beautiful ?
3 : Why was the quality of the things which were made very high ?
4 : Where had Indian silk and cotton a wide market ?
5 : Why did they have a wide market in Europe ?
6 : In what condition are the cottage industries of India today ?
7 : Why are they in a bad condition ?
8 : How bad is the condition of the workers ?
9 : What is one (another, a third) thing which we have to do to make their condition better ?

E1 : What are the general conditions in our villages ?
2 : Why do you say that our villages are in a bad condition ?
3 : In what condition are the village animals ?
4 : Why do you say they are in a bad condition ?
5 : What is the condition of the village houses ?
6 : Why do you say they are in a bad condition ?
7 : Are the village roads in a good condition or a bad condition ?
8 : Why do you say that they are in a bad condition ?
9 : What are the conditions under which the villagers are living ?
10 : Why do you say that the conditions under which they are living are very bad ?
11 : Is there any hope of a change for the better in the future ?

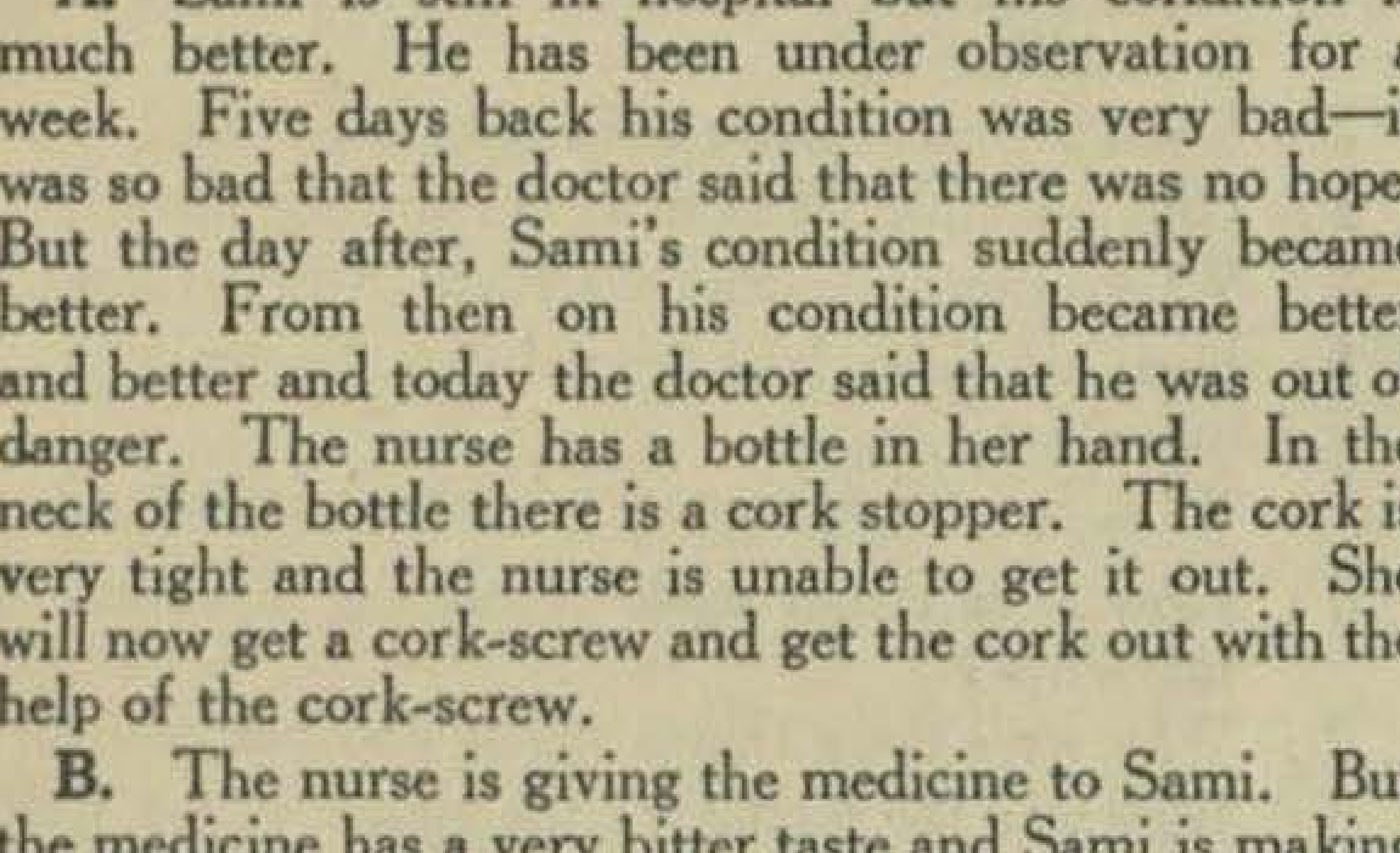
Unit 51 : Price and Value

cork, addition, offer, reason, value

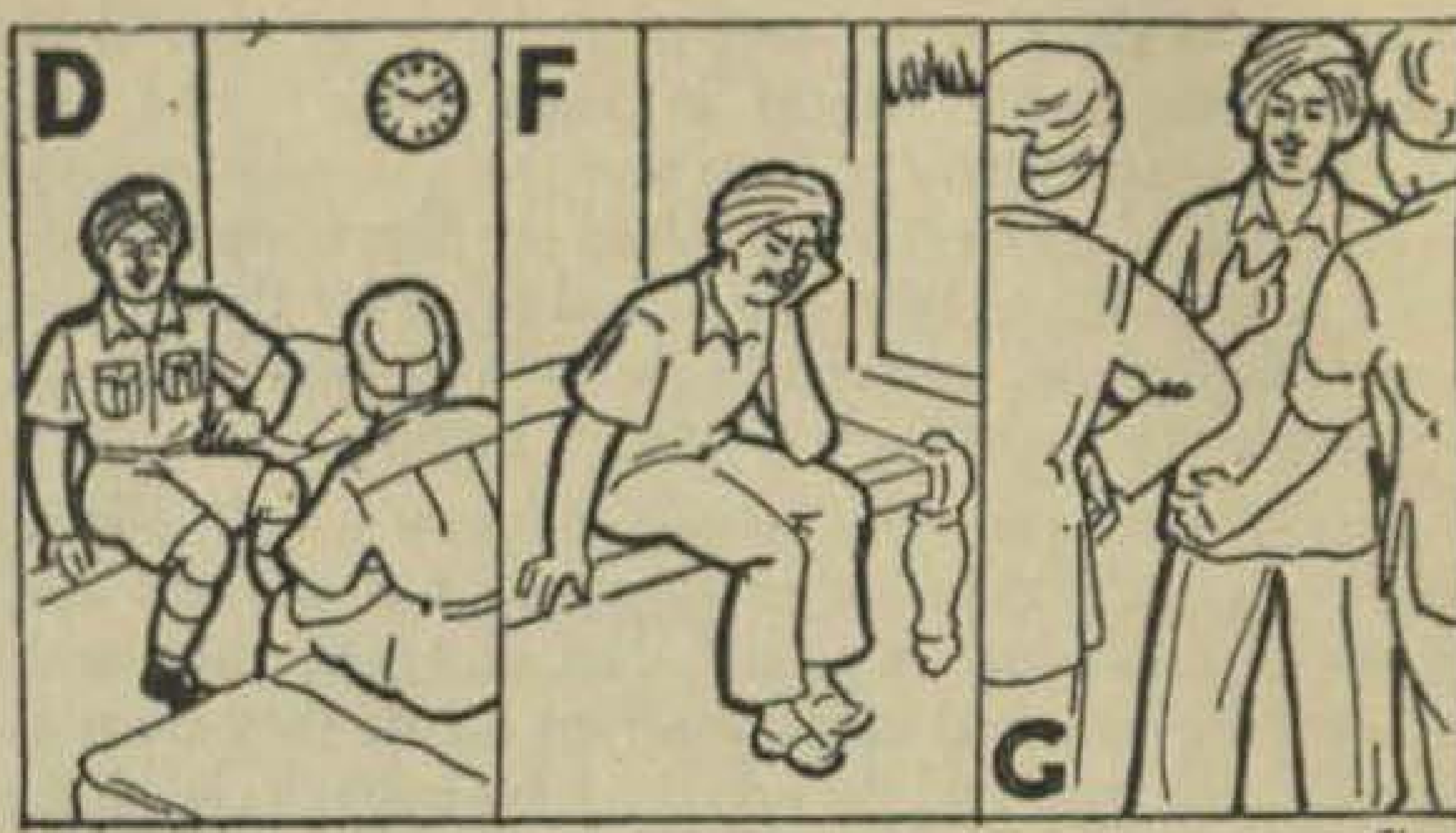


A. Sami is still in hospital but his condition is much better. He has been under observation for a week. Five days back his condition was very bad—it was so bad that the doctor said that there was no hope. But the day after, Sami's condition suddenly became better. From then on his condition became better and better and today the doctor said that he was out of danger. The nurse has a bottle in her hand. In the neck of the bottle there is a cork stopper. The cork is very tight and the nurse is unable to get it out. She will now get a cork-screw and get the cork out with the help of the cork-screw.

B. The nurse is giving the medicine to Sami. But the medicine has a very bitter taste and Sami is making a protest. He is saying that he will take the medicine only if the nurse puts some sugar in it. The addition of sugar will make a medicine sweet. The addition of enough sugar will make almost anything sweet. The addition of the liquid from a crushed lemon will make almost anything acid. The addition of quinine will make almost anything bitter.



C. The hospital is a very small building ; there are not enough beds in it for all the wounded men who are coming in. The addition of a wing to the building is necessary. The building work has been started ; a stage has been put up and a great amount of material has been got together. Cement, water and stones are being mixed in great vessels and in a day or two the building material will be ready.



D. It is past ten o'clock but Reddi and Khan are seated on their beds talking to another about demobilization and what they are going to do when they go home. Reddi has been to the Employment Exchange. The clerk at the Exchange said that there were three jobs for Reddi, any one of which he might take. A motor bus company had made an offer to take him as a driver ; the company had said that they were ready to give him 60 rupees a month. Then there was an offer from an oil company ; they had said they were ready to take him on as a mechanic and give him 55 rupees a month. The third offer was from the Government ; the Government were ready to give him a job as a policeman—salary 50 rupees a month. Three separate jobs have been offered to him and Reddi is free to make his selection. There is little doubt which of these three offers he is going to take. Naturally he will take the offer which the motor bus company has made to him, because they are offering him the highest salary.

E. But he is going to take the company's offer only on certain conditions. His first condition is that the company has to give him one day's holiday every week. His second condition is that at the end of every year the company has to give him two weeks' holiday with pay. His third condition is that if there is a bus smash and he is so badly damaged that he is not able to do any more work the company has to make him a payment of 2,000 rupees. His fourth condition is that when he is fifty-five years old and it is time for him to give up his job the company will have to make him a payment of 2,000 rupees.

F. Khan is now back on his farm in the village. It makes him very sad to see the condition of his friends in the village. His one desire now is to do everything which it is in his power to do to make living conditions in the village better. He has a belief that with some trouble it would be possible for his friends in the village to keep their roads clean and make their houses beautiful. He does very hard work every day. He never has a rest after his work on the farm. He goes from house to house, he sees this man and that man, he makes suggestions when anyone is in trouble, he gives talks, and he takes part in all the discussions. He never gets angry when anyone says or does a foolish thing. He

keeps good-humoured all the time. He has become the guide and friend of all the other villagers.

G. Every day he has a talk with the villagers about some important question or other. Today it is about savings banks and the need for putting by a little money every month. He is saying that it is much wiser to put one's money into a savings bank than give it away for jewels and ornaments. He is saying that there are four good reasons why it is unwise to let money be wasted on jewels and ornaments. The first reason is that if your girls have ornaments hanging from their ears it is not possible to give them a good wash. The second reason is that frequently small boys and girls are put to death by wrong-doers because of the jewels which they have on ; these jewels are a danger to their existence. The third reason is that it is not possible to make holes in one's ears without giving great pain, which is quite unnecessary. His last and most important reason is that there are much better uses for money than giving it away for jewels. With the same money we may, for example, get a mosquito net or an ounce of quinine. Or we may get fertilizers or good seeds for our land. Or we may put the money in a savings bank where it will go on increasing.

H. The value of a thing is different from its price. Sometimes things of great price have little or no value. And frequently things which have only a small price are of the greatest value to us. For example, air, water or sunlight have little or no price ; one gets them free. But they are of the greatest value to us. Without air, water, or sunlight it would not be possible to go on living even for a short time. It is true, however, that the value of a thing is sometimes given in money. For example, we say that land which is fertile has more value than land which is not fertile. Very fertile land may sometimes be valued at a thousand rupees an acre, but land which is not fertile may be valued at less than fifty rupees an acre. But generally when we say that the value of a thing is great the sense is that it is of the greatest use to us.

A1 : How is Sami's condition now ?
2 : What has the nurse in her hand ?
3 : What is there in the neck of the bottle ?
4 : Why is the nurse unable to get the cork out ?
5 : How will she get the cork out ?

B1 : What is the nurse giving Sami ?
2 : Why is Sami making a protest ?
3 : What is he saying ?
4 : What will make a medicine (almost anything) sweet ?
5 : What will make almost anything acid (bitter) ?

C1 : What sort of building is the hospital ?
2 : Why is the addition of a wing to the building necessary ?
3 : What has been started (put up, got together) ?
4 : What are being mixed in great vessels ?

D1 : What is the time ?
2 : Where are Khan and Reddi seated ?
3 : What are they talking about ?
4 : Where has Reddi been ?
5 : What did the clerk at the Exchange say ?
6 : What offer has the bus company made ?
7 : What salary is the company ready to give him ?
8 : From what other company is there an offer ?
9 : What did the company say ?
10 : From whom was the third offer ?
11 : What offer have the Government made ?
12 : What is the number of jobs which have been offered to Reddi ?
13 : Which of these three offers will he take ?
14 : Why will he take the offer which the motor bus company has made to him ?

E : He is going to take the company's offer only on certain conditions. What is his first (second, third, fourth) condition ?

F1 : Where is Khan now ?
2 : What is making him so sad ?
3 : What is his one desire now ?
4 : Where does he go after his work on the farm ?
5 : What does he do when anyone is in trouble ?
6 : Does he get angry when anyone does or says a foolish thing ?
7 : What is he to the villagers now ?

G1 : What does he do every day ?
2 : What is the talk about today ?
3 : There are four good reasons why it is unwise to let money be wasted on jewels and ornaments. What is the first (second, third, fourth) reason ?

H1 : Is value the same thing as price ?
2 : Frequently things which have only a small price are of the greatest value to us. Give one (another, a third) example.
3 : Why is air (water, sunlight) of the greatest value to us ?
4 : How is the value of a thing sometimes given ?
5 : How much may very fertile land be valued at sometimes ?
6 : And how much may land which is not fertile be valued at ?
7 : When we say the value of a thing is great what is generally the sense of this statement ?

Unit 52 : An Important Decision

thought, mind, physical, memory



A. Mudaliar is home on leave. He is seated at a table with his face resting on his open hand. What is he doing at the table ? His father has said that Mudaliar is now twenty-five years old, and it is time for him to get married. In fact three of his father's friends, all with girls ready to be married, have made Mudaliar offers. What is Mudaliar to do ? Is he to get married now or not ? If he is to get married which of the three girls is he to take ? What sort of girls are they ? Which girl is the best of the three ? Questions like these keep coming into his head ; and he is giving thought to them. The questions are not simple. Thought is needed ; very deep thought is needed. If he makes a decision without thought he may make the wrong decision, and if he gets married to the wrong girl he will later be full of regret. That is why he has to take thought before making his decision. If he is unable to come to a decision he will probably go to his father and see what suggestion his father has to make.

B. When a man is in deep thought we say his mind is working. It is in a man's mind that thoughts are produced. We are able to see a man's body, we are able to give it a touch. A man's body is a physical thing ; it has a physical existence. Anything which we are able to see or give a touch to or take a smell at or have a taste of is a physical thing. Examples of physical things are a man's body, a table, a seat, a box, the sun, moon and the clouds. We are able to see a man's body ; but we are not able to see his mind or give it a touch. A man's mind is not a physical thing. Though we are not able to see a man's mind there are good reasons for saying that there is such a thing as mind. For example, when we say unkind words to a man we give him pain. But the thing which is pained is not his body ; it is something which is separate from his body. It is to this thing that we give the name mind. It is in a man's mind that thoughts are produced and ideas come to birth.

C. You have to keep everything which your instructors say in your mind. If you do not keep it in your mind you will get no knowledge and the instructor's time will be wasted. Your English instructor gives you a number of English words and says, "Keep these words in your mind." But if you do not do as the instructor says, if you let these words go out of your mind, you will not be able to do your talking and writing in English. Your sergeant gives you the names of the different parts of the rifle and says, "Keep the names of the different parts of the rifle in your mind." But if you do not do as the instructor says, if you let the names of the different parts of the rifle go out of your mind, you will not be able to get a good knowledge of the use of your rifle. Your map-reading instructor says, "This is the sign for a road ; this is the sign for a railway ; this is the sign for a river; and this is the sign for a building. Keep these signs in your mind." But if you do not do as the instructor says, if you let these signs go out of your mind, you will not be able to get through your map-reading test.

D. Of a man who is able to keep a great number of things in his mind for a long time we say that he has a good memory. Some persons have a very good memory. They have only to go through a book once and they will be able to give you a complete account of what is in the book. Others have a very bad memory. Even after going through a book four or five times they are still not able to give you even a short account of what is in the book. Very young boys and girls have very good memories as a rule. But as a man gets older and older his memory becomes worse and worse.

E. Here is Mudaliar's father. He is looking for his watch. He is saying to Mudaliar that he put his watch somewhere only ten minutes back but now he is not able to say where he put it. He is an old man and has a very bad memory. But Mudaliar is different. He has a very good memory. For example, he is able to give you even such unimportant dates as the date on which he first went to school, the date on which the recruiting officer came to his village, the date on which he was sent to Calcutta, the date on which he was wounded in a battle in Burma and so on. He has a very good memory for dates. But his friend Reddi has a very bad memory for dates. Reddi is not able to give even very important dates like the date of his birth, or the date on which his mother's death took place, or the date on which he was taken into the Army, or the date on which he was married. He has a very bad memory for dates.

F. It is two weeks from the day Mudaliar's father's friends made their offer. And they are still waiting for an answer. Mudaliar was unable to make a decision and has now come to his father for suggestions. The two men are taking thought together. The son seems to be in deep thought and the father is doing most of the talking. The father's mind goes back forty-eight years to the time when he was married himself ; old memories come back to him. He gives his son an account of everything which took place at the time: how the offer was made, what his father said, why he

was married and who were present when he was married. He says that his opinion was never taken, he had not even seen the girl, he was given no time, he was simply ordered to get married. These are among the old memories which the father is giving his son. This way of getting married may be very wise or very foolish. But the fact is that he has not only had no trouble with the woman to whom he was married, but he and she have been very happy together. She has been an expert housekeeper and a very good friend. The father then goes on to give a number of reasons why in his opinion Kuppa's daughter is better than the other two girls. There seems to be no agreement between the father and the son on the question, because to the older man good qualities are more important than good looks, but to the younger man good looks are more important than good qualities. "Make up your mind one way or the other, my son," says the father at last. "Come to a decision quickly and say what you are going to do, so that I may give my friends an answer before the end of this week." Says the son, "Give me one more day, father. The minute I have made up my mind I will say what I am going to do."

A1 : Who is this ?
2 : Where is he seated ?
3 : How is he seated ?
4 : How old is Mudaliar ?
5 : What has his father to say about that ?
6 : Who have made offers to Mudaliar ?
7 : What sort of questions keep coming into his head ?
8 : What is he doing ?
9 : Why is thought needed ?
10 : What is the danger if he makes a decision without thought ?
11 : What would be the outcome if he got married to the wrong girl ?

B1 : What is working when a man is in deep thought ?
2 : Where are thoughts produced ?
3 : What sort of thing is a man's body ?
4 : What sort of existence it has ?
5 : What is a physical thing ?
6 : Give some examples of physical things.
7 : Is a man's mind a physical thing ?
8 : Why do you say that a man's mind is not a physical thing ?
9 : What effect has an unkind word on a man ?
10 : What is the thing which is pained ?
11 : Where do ideas come to birth ?

C1 : What have you to keep in your mind ?
2 : And if you do not keep these things in your mind—what then ?
3 : What does your English instructor say ?
4 : Why is it important to keep these words in your mind ?
5 : What does your sergeant say ?
6 : Why is it important to keep these names in your mind ?
7 : What does your map-reading instructor say ?
8 : What is the danger if you let these signs go out of your mind ?

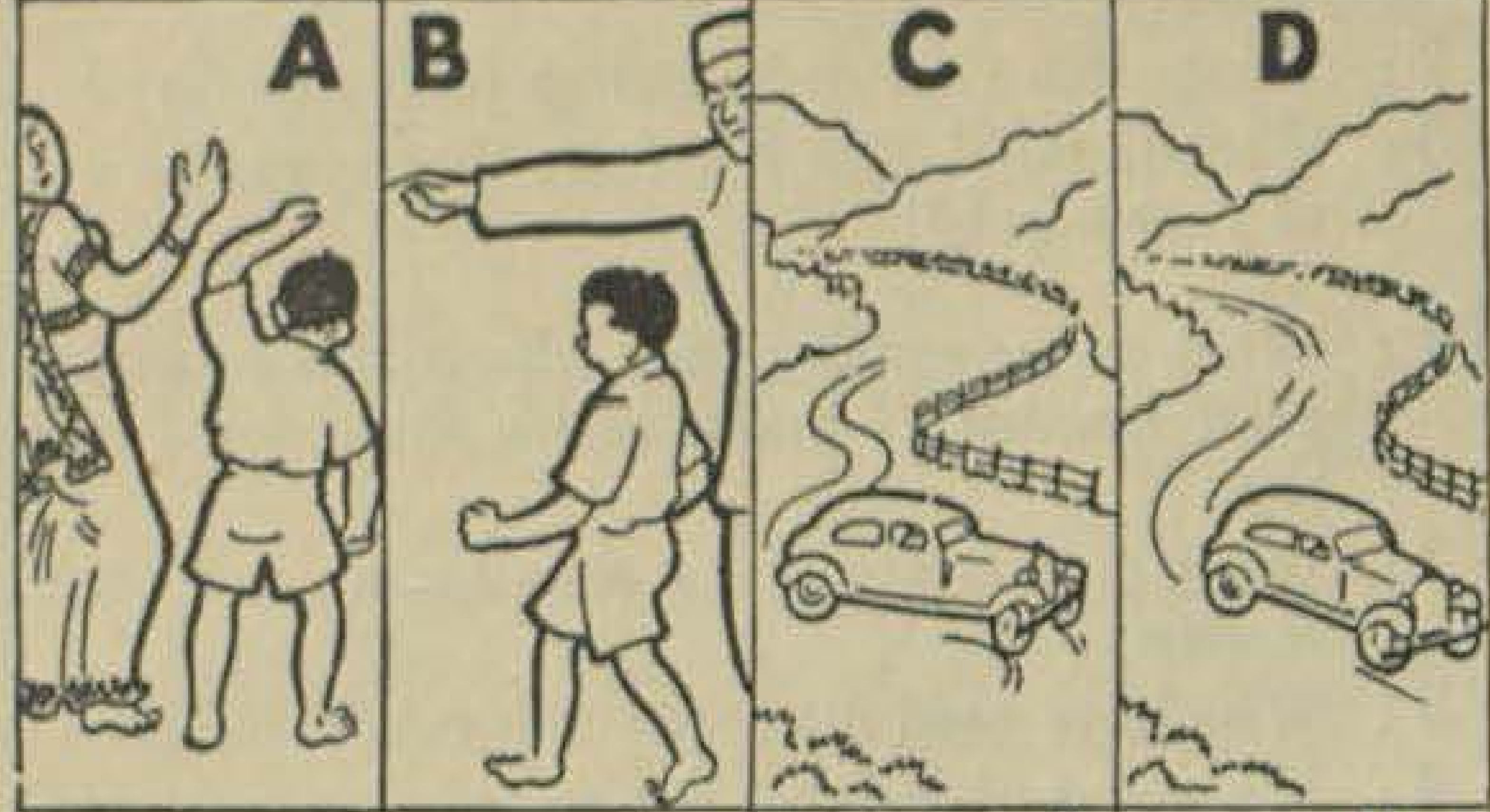
D1 : What do we say of a man who is able to keep a great number of things in his mind for a long time ?
2 : When do you say that a man has a good (bad) memory ?
3 : Who have good memories as a rule ?
4 : What sort of memory has an old man as a rule ?

E1 : Who is this ?
2 : What is he looking for ?
3 : What is he saying to Mudaliar ?
4 : Is he old or young ?
5 : What sort of memory has he ?
6 : How is Mudaliar different ?
7 : Why do you say he has a good memory ?
8 : What has he a good memory for ?
9 : Who has a bad memory for dates ?
10 : Why do you say that he has a very bad memory for dates ?

F1 : When did Mudaliar's father's friends make their offer ?
2 : Have they had an answer ?
3 : Why has Mudaliar come to his father ?
4 : What are the two doing together ?
5 : Which of them is in deep thought ?
6 : Who is doing most of the talking ?
7 : What does his mind go back to ?
8 : What come back to him ?
9 : What does he give his son an account of ?
10 : Was his opinion about the girl ever taken ?
11 : Had he ever seen the girl ?
12 : How much time was he given ?
13 : What was he ordered to do ?
14 : Is this way of getting married wise or foolish ?
15 : Has he had any trouble with the woman to whom he was married ?
16 : Have they been happy together ?
17 : What two things has she been to him ?
18 : Which girl is the best of the three in his opinion ?
19 : Why is there no agreement between the father and the son on the question ?
20 : What does the father say to the son at last ?
21 : What does the son say to the father ?

Unit 53 : The Process of Digestion

control, process, digestion

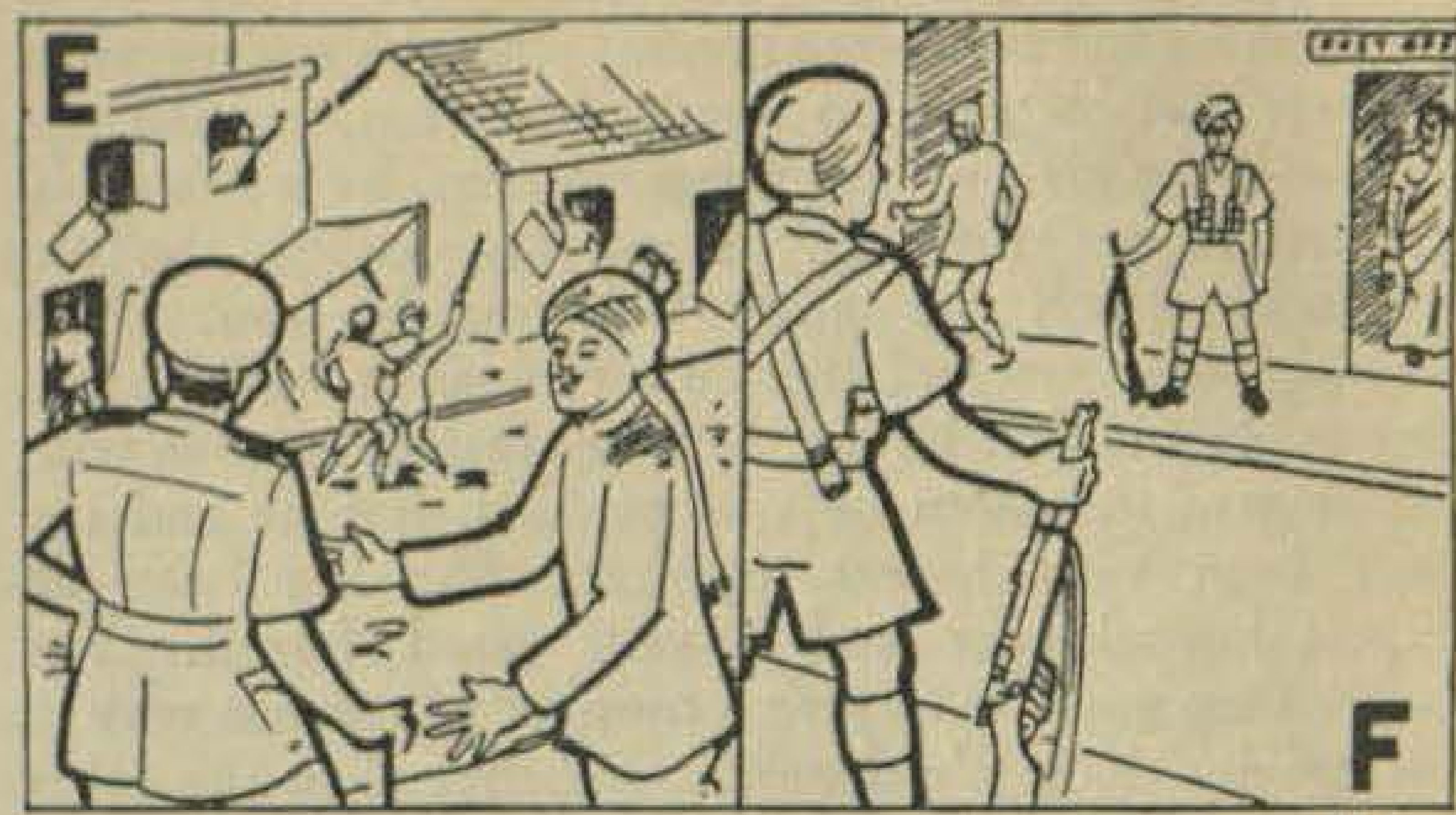


A. Gopal's mother, Sita, was attempting to make Gopal do his school-work ; she had got a grip of his arm and was attempting to get him to his table. But Gopal is much stronger than his mother, and was able to get himself free without much trouble. The mother is not able to keep her son under control. When his father is away, Gopal never does any school-work at home ; he is out with his friends all day ; he never comes home when it is time for his meals ; he never goes to bed when it is time for bed. His mother is unable to make him do as she says ; she is not able to keep him under control.

B. But Ram, his father, is a different sort of person. He is able to keep his son under control without much trouble. Here Ram is pointing to Gopal's table, and Gopal is going to his table to do his school work without a protest. Ram is able to keep his son well under control. When Ram is at home Gopal never goes out for play before completing his school-work ; he comes home when it is time for his meals ; he goes to bed when it is time for bed. When Ram is at home Gopal is completely under control. But when Ram is away Gopal is completely out of control.

C. Ram is driving his new car down a slope. He is not an experienced driver, and the slope is so sharp that he is not able to keep the car under control. He is in trouble. He is not able to make the car go more slowly ; he is not able to keep the car straight ; the car is twisting and turning all the time. It is completely out of control.

D. Ram's friend, who is a very experienced driver, is now at the wheel ; he has taken control of the wheel. The car is going more slowly and it is keeping straight in the middle of the road. The car is now completely under control and there is no danger. The slope is about two miles long, and when they get to the foot of the slope and the road is flat again Ram will take control of the wheel from his friend.



E. This little town is in a very bad condition. There has been trouble and fighting between two groups in the town ; a number of roads and buildings have been damaged and a number of persons have come to their deaths. Others are still in hospital, badly wounded. The civil authorities are unable to keep the townsmen under control with the help of the police. The townsmen have got so completely out of control that the Army is forced to take control of the town from the civil authorities. The District Magistrate of the town is saying to an Army officer, " Please take control of this town. I am unable to keep the townsmen under control with the help of the police."

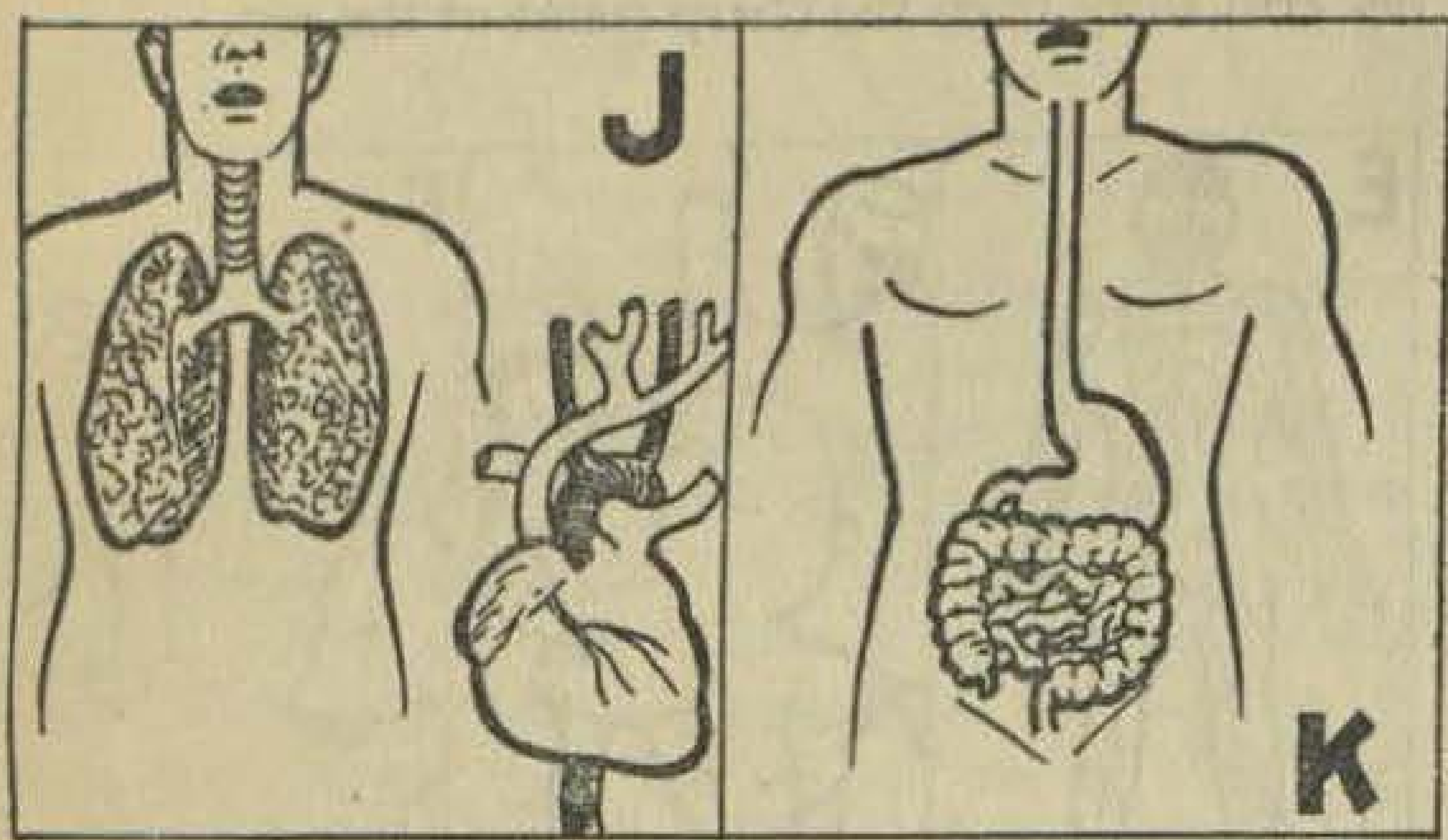
F. The town is now under the control of the Army. Soldiers are placed at the doors of all Government buildings. The post office, the telegraph office, and the railway station are all controlled by the military. The military will not be in control of the town very long. The minute there is peace and order in the town the military will go away and the civil authorities will take over control again.

G. In wartime a number of things like clothing and food have to be controlled by the Government. The prices of food, clothing and other things have to be fixed and the amounts of food, clothing and other things which a man may get have to be fixed as well. Even after the war the controls have to be kept on for some time. If prices were not controlled they would go up and up and most of the poorer persons in the country would be in great trouble. That is the reason why the prices of food, clothing and other things have to be controlled. Controlling the price, quality and amount of food is the business of the food-controller. We have other sorts of controllers as well. For example, we have a controller for firewood, we have a controller for paper, we have a controller for shipping and we have a controller for steel.

H. Steel is made from iron and iron is got from under the earth. The process by which steel is made from iron is a long process. There is first the process of getting the iron separate from the earth with which it is generally mixed. This is done by heating the iron in great vessels at a high temperature. Then there is the process of getting the iron mixed with another metal named manganese. When iron is mixed with manganese

at a great temperature we get steel. The process of making iron into steel is a long process.

I. The process of making cloth from cotton is an even longer process. There are in fact four separate processes here. There is first the process of cleaning the cotton. Then there is the process of making yarn (thread) out of the cotton. Third, there is the process of making cloth from the yarn. And last there is the process of colouring the cloth.



53

J. In a man's body there are a number of processes which go on all the time. For example there is the breathing process. Over some of these processes a man has a certain amount of control. For example he may keep himself from breathing in or out, for a short time. But there are other processes over which a man has no control. There are, for example, the processes of the heart. The process by which blood is pumped up and down a man's body goes on all the time.

K. Another process over which a man has no control is the process of digestion. The food which we take goes into the stomach and from the stomach it is taken to every other part of the body by the blood. But before it is possible for the blood to take the food to all parts of the body the food has to be changed. Rice, chapatis, milk, vegetables, butter and ghee all have to be changed. This change, which takes place chiefly in the stomach, is named digestion.

A1 : What was Sita attempting to do ?
2 : Why was Gopal able to get himself free without much trouble ?
3 : Is the mother able to keep her son under control ?
4 : Why do you say that Gopal's mother is unable to keep him under control ?

B1 : Who is able to keep Gopal under control without much trouble ?
2 : What is Ram doing ?
3 : Why do we say that Ram is able to keep his son well under control ?
4 : When is Gopal completely under control ?
5 : When is Gopal completely out of control ?

C1 : What is Ram doing ?
2 : Why do you say that he is not able to keep the car under control ?

D1 : Who has taken control of the wheel ?
2 : Why do we say that the car is now completely under control ?
3 : When will Ram take control of the wheel again ?

E1 : What condition is this town in ?
2 : Are the civil authorities able to keep the townsmen under control ?
3 : Who is now forced to take control of the town ?
4 : Why is the Army forced to take control of the town ?

F1 : Under whose control is the town now ?
2 : By whom is the post office (telegraph office railway station) controlled ?
3 : How long will the military be in control of the town ?
4 : When will the civil authorities take over control again ?

G1 : What things have to be controlled by Govern-ment in wartime ?
2 : Why have the prices of food and clothing and other things to be controlled ?
3 : Whose business is controlling the price, quality and amount of food ?

H1 : Is the process by which steel is made from iron a long process or a short process ?
2 : What do they do first ?
3 : How is this process done ?
4 : What do they do after that ?

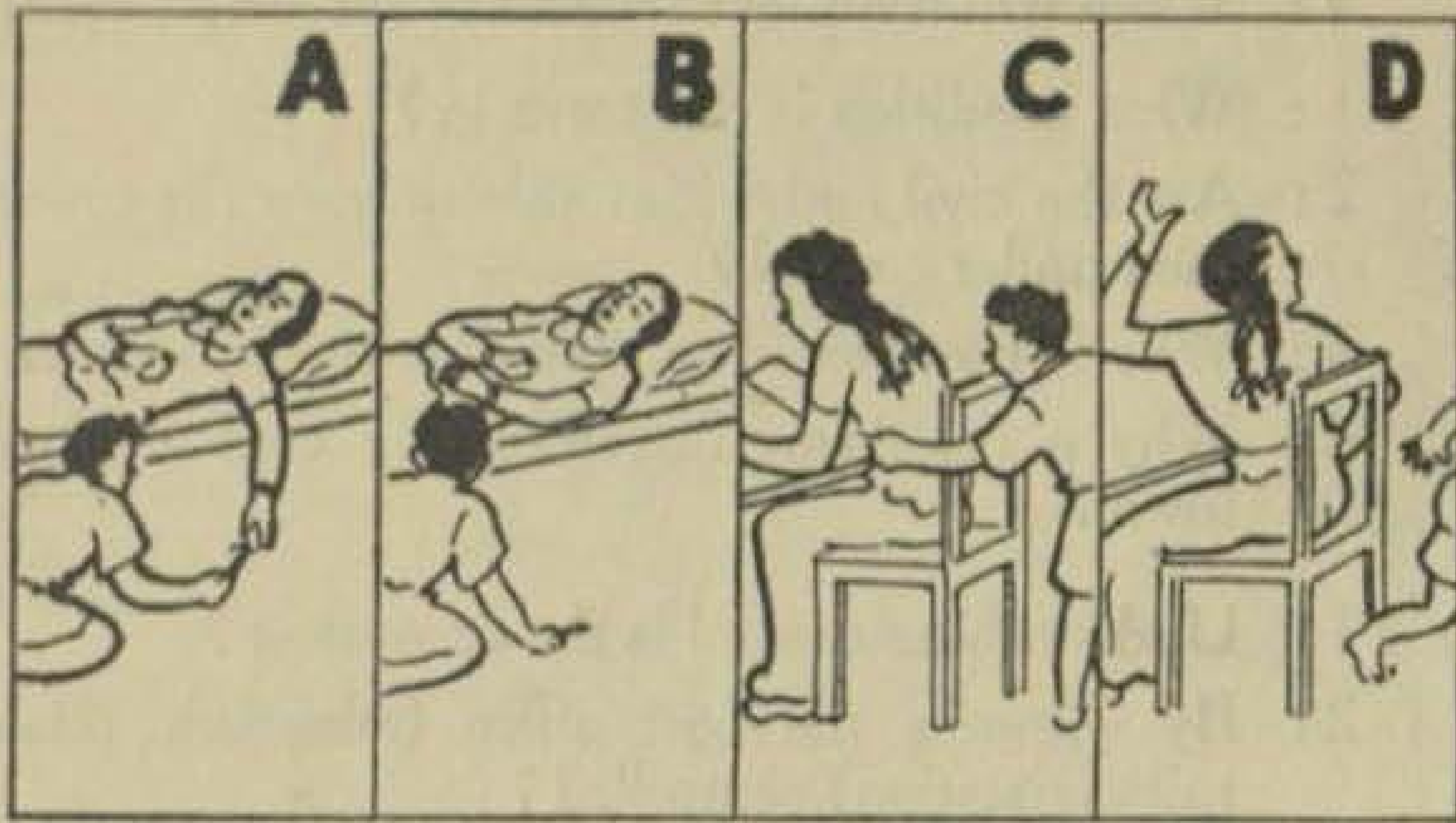
I1 : Which is longer—the process of making steel from iron or the process of making cloth from cotton ?
2 : What is the number of processes here ?
3 : What is the first (second, third, fourth) process ?

J1 : Give one example of a process in a man's body which goes on all the time.
2 : Over which of these processes have we control ?
3 : Why do you say that a man has control over the process of breathing ?
4 : Give one example of a process over which a man has no control.

K1 : Give another example of a process over which a man has no control.
2 : Where does the food which we take in go ?
3 : What takes the food to the other parts of the body ?
4 : Is the food taken to the other parts of the body as it is ?
5 : What is this change named ?
6 : Where does digestion chiefly take place ?

Unit 54 : The Two Sexes

reaction, impulse, nerve, sex, male, female



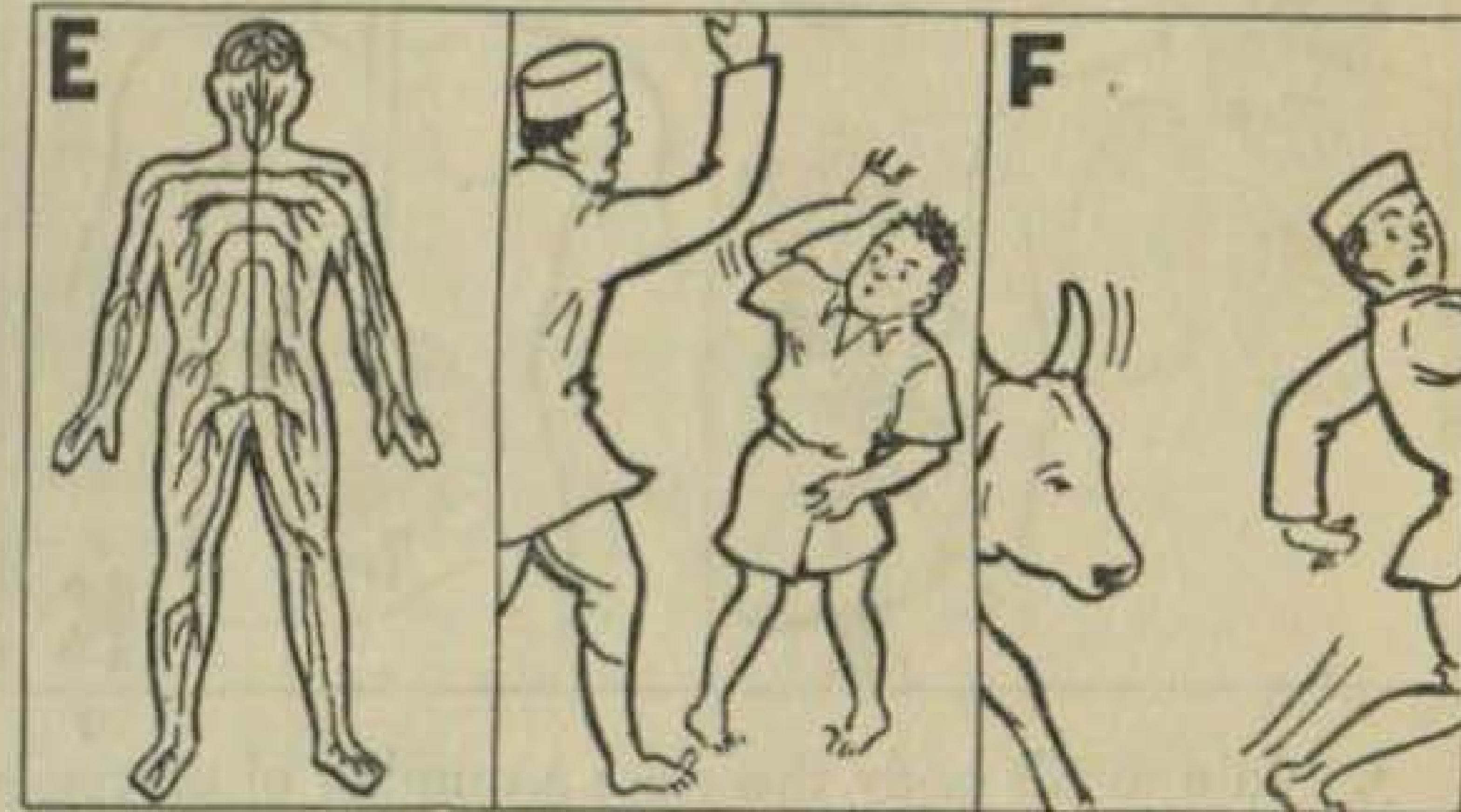
54

A. Kamala is sleeping. Her left arm is hanging over the side of the bed. Gopal has a lighted 'candle' in his hand and is on his knees by the bed-side. What is he doing there with a lighted candle ? He is a bad boy. He is putting the flame of the candle to one of the fingers of Kamala's left hand. What will Kamala do when her finger is touched by the flame ? What will her reaction be ? Without a second's thought she will get the finger away from the flame as quickly as possible. That will be her reaction.

B. Kamala is still sleeping. But her finger is away from the flame. How did the finger get away from the flame ? Kamala was sleeping ; she was not conscious that Gopal had put a flame to her finger. It was not she who gave the finger an order to get away from the flame. What gave the order then ? It was Kamala's brain which gave the order. How did it do this ? When Gopal put the flame to Kamala's finger a burn was caused on the finger, and the news that there was a burn on the finger was sent to the brain. When the brain got the news, in the form of pain, that a burn had been caused on the finger, it sent an order to the finger to get away from the flame, and the finger got away. There is a special name for the sort of order which the brain sends to different parts of our bodies. It is an 'impulse.' We say the brain sent an impulse to the finger to get away. Or we say Kamala had an impulse to get her finger away from the flame.

C. We have impulses not only when we are sleeping ; we have impulses even when we are fully awake. For example, here is Kamala reading a book quietly at her table. She is fully awake, but she is not conscious that Gopal is at her back and is about to put the sharp point of a pin into her arm. What will Kamala do when the sharp point of the pin comes into touch with her arm ? What will her reaction be ? She will say, "Oh !" and get her arm away from the sharp point of the pin as quickly as possible. That will be her reaction.

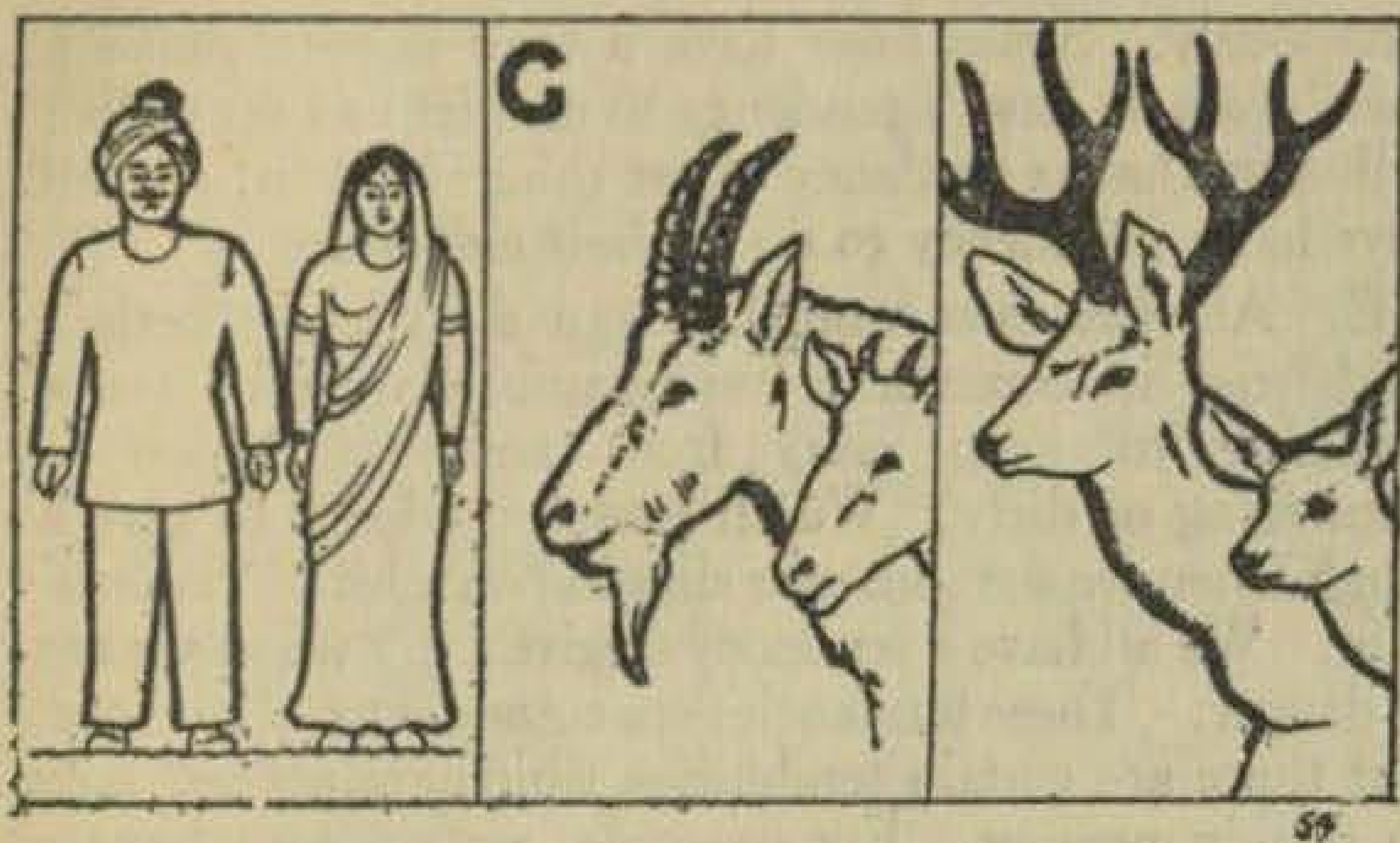
D. Kamala's arm is away from the sharp point of the pin. She got her arm away the very minute Gopal put the pointed end of the pin into it, even before she had time to see what was taking place. It was not Kamala who gave her arm an order to get away from the sharp point of the pin. What gave the order then ? It was once again Kamala's brain which gave the order. How did the brain do this ? As before, when the brain got the news that the sharp point of a pin was touching the arm, it sent an impulse to the arm to get away from the pin. In other words Kamala had an impulse to get her arm away from the sharp point of the pin.



54

E. Now how is the news that there is a cut or a burn on any part of a man's body sent to the brain ? And how is an impulse from the brain sent to the different parts of a man's body ? In a man's body there are little, thin, wire-like threads joining the brain with every other part of the body. It is through these threads or wires that the brain gets the news and sends the impulses. There is a special name for these threads or wires. They are 'nerves'. Without nerves it would not be possible for different parts of the body to send any messages to the brain or for the brain to send any impulses to the rest of the body. If the nerve joining the brain and a finger is cut there will be no feeling in the finger. That is to say, if the nerve is cut and you put that finger into a flame you will get no pain in the finger.

F. A man's brain keeps on getting news and sending impulses every second of his existence. It is a process which goes on without a stop all the time the man is living. We all have experience of a number of different sorts of impulses. For example, if someone suddenly takes a step forward to give you a blow you have an impulse to take a step back. If you see an angry cow running in your direction with its head down you have an impulse to get out of the way as quickly as possible. If you see a young man kicking an old woman you will probably have an impulse to go to the woman's help. It may be that there are good reasons for the young man's kicks and blows. But you go to the old woman's help without stopping to take thought. Acts which are done like this, without thought, we say are done 'on impulse.' And if a man does an act on impulse we say that he is acting on impulse.



G. Among all living things, animals or plants, there are two sexes—male and female. A man is a male ; a woman is a female. A boy is a male ; a girl is a female. In the same way there are two sexes among animals ; there are male dogs and female dogs ; there are male sheep and female sheep ; there are male goats and female goats. A male goat has hair on its chin but a female goat has no hair on its chin. A male 'deer' has horns on its head, but a female deer has no horns on its head. A male elephant has 'tusks'; a female elephant has no tusks. A male lion has hair on its neck, but a female lion has no hair on its neck. Sometimes we have special names for male and female animals. For example, a female dog is a 'bitch'. A male cow is a bullock. A male fowl is a 'cock', but a female fowl is a 'hen'. Sometimes we only put 'he' or 'she' in front of the name of an animal. For example, a male goat is a he-goat and a female goat is a she-goat. There are two sexes not only among men and animals but among plants as well. It is from the female plant that we get fruit.

A1 : What is Kamala doing ?
2 : Where is her left arm hanging ?
3 : What has Gopal in his hand ?
4 : Where is he ?
5 : What is he doing with the lighted candle ?
6 : What will Kamala's reaction be when the finger is touched by the flame ?

B1 : Is Kamala awake ?
2 : Where is her finger ?
3 : Was she conscious that Gopal had put a flame to her finger ?
4 : It was not she who gave the finger an order to get away from the flame. What gave the order then ?
5 : What was caused on the finger when Gopal put the flame to it ?
6 : Where was the news that there was a burn sent ?
7 : In what form did the brain get the news ?
8 : What order did the brain send the finger ?
9 : What special name do we give this sort of order which the brain sends to different parts of our bodies ?
10 : What did the brain send to the finger ?
11 : What is another way of saying this ?

C1 : We have impulses when we are sleeping. Have we impulses when we are awake ?
2 : What is Kamala doing at her table ?
3 : Is she conscious that Gopal is at her back ?
4 : What is he about to do ?
5 : What will Kamala's reaction be when the sharp point of the pin comes into touch with her arm ?

D1 : Where is Kamala's arm ?
2 : When did she get her arm away ?
3 : It was not Kamala who gave the arm an order to get away from the sharp point of the pin. What gave the order then ?
4 : What did the brain do when it got the news that the sharp point of a pin was touching the arm ?
5 : What is another way of saying this ?

E1 : How is news sent to the brain ?
2 : What special name do we give these thin wire-like threads ?
3 : How are impulses from the brain sent to different parts of a man's body ?
4 : What are necessary for sending messages and impulses ?
5 : When will there be no feeling in the finger ?
6 : Will you get any pain in the finger if the nerve is cut?

F1 : What does a man's brain keep on doing every second of his existence ?
2 : How long does this process go on ?
3 : What sort of impulse will you have if someone suddenly takes a step forward to give you a blow (you see an angry cow, etc. ; you see a young man, etc.) ?
4 : What do we say of acts which are done like this, without thought ?
5 : What is another way of saying that a man does an act on impulse ?

G1 : What two sexes are there among living things ?
2 : What is a man (woman, boy, girl) ?
3 : What two sexes are there among animals ?
4 : Which goat has hair (no hair) on its chin ?
5 : Is a deer which has horns (no horns) on its head a male deer or a female deer ?
6 : Which elephant has tusks (no tusks) ?
7 : Is a lion which has hair on its neck a male lion or a female lion ?
8 : What is the special name for a female dog ?
9 : What is a bullock ?
10 : What is the special name for a male (female) fowl?
11 : What is a he-goat (she-goat) ?
12 : Do we get fruit from the male plant or the female plant ?

Unit 55 : Strange Behaviour

tendency, behaviour, shame



A. Sita's very young baby has his thumb in his mouth again. Sita has a troubled look on her face. She is saying to herself, " It's no use. Every time I see that baby with his thumb in his mouth I take care to get it out. But the minute I go away the thumb is back in his mouth. The doctor says it's very bad for the baby. But what am I to do ? "

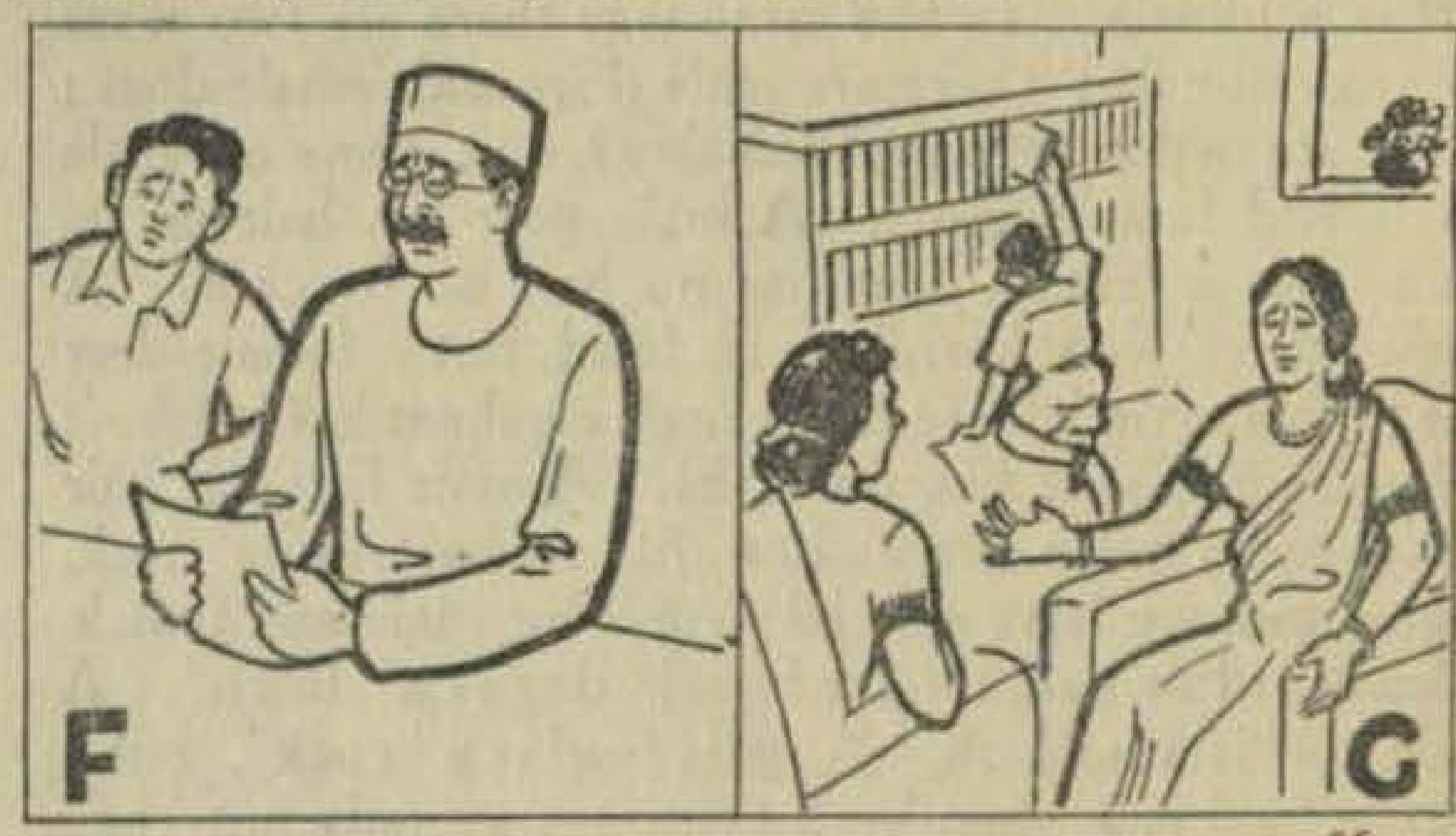
B. Why does the baby keep putting his thumb in his mouth ? Because all babies have a tendency to put their thumbs or fingers or toes into their mouths ; it is very natural with them. They do it almost unconsciously. Sometimes it is a thumb ; sometimes it is the fingers ; sometimes it is a toe. Some babies have a tendency to put their thumbs into their mouths ; others have a tendency to put their fingers into their mouths ; still others have a tendency to put their toes into their mouths. In fact all babies have a tendency to put anything which they come across into their mouths.

C. Gopal is making a noise on a tin with a stick, and Mohan is making pictures on the wall with a bit of chalk. Sita is looking on, unable to do anything about it. She is saying to herself, " It's no use. Whenever I see Gopal making a noise on a tin I take the tin away from him. But the minute my back is turned he is at the box or the door making an even louder noise."

D. Why does Gopal keep on making a noise? Why does Mohan keep on making the walls dirty ? Because boys have a tendency to make a noise ; making a noise is very natural with them. They do it almost unconsciously. Some boys have a tendency to make a noise ; others have a tendency to do pictures on walls ; still others have a tendency to get things broken; and all boys have a tendency to do as their elders do.

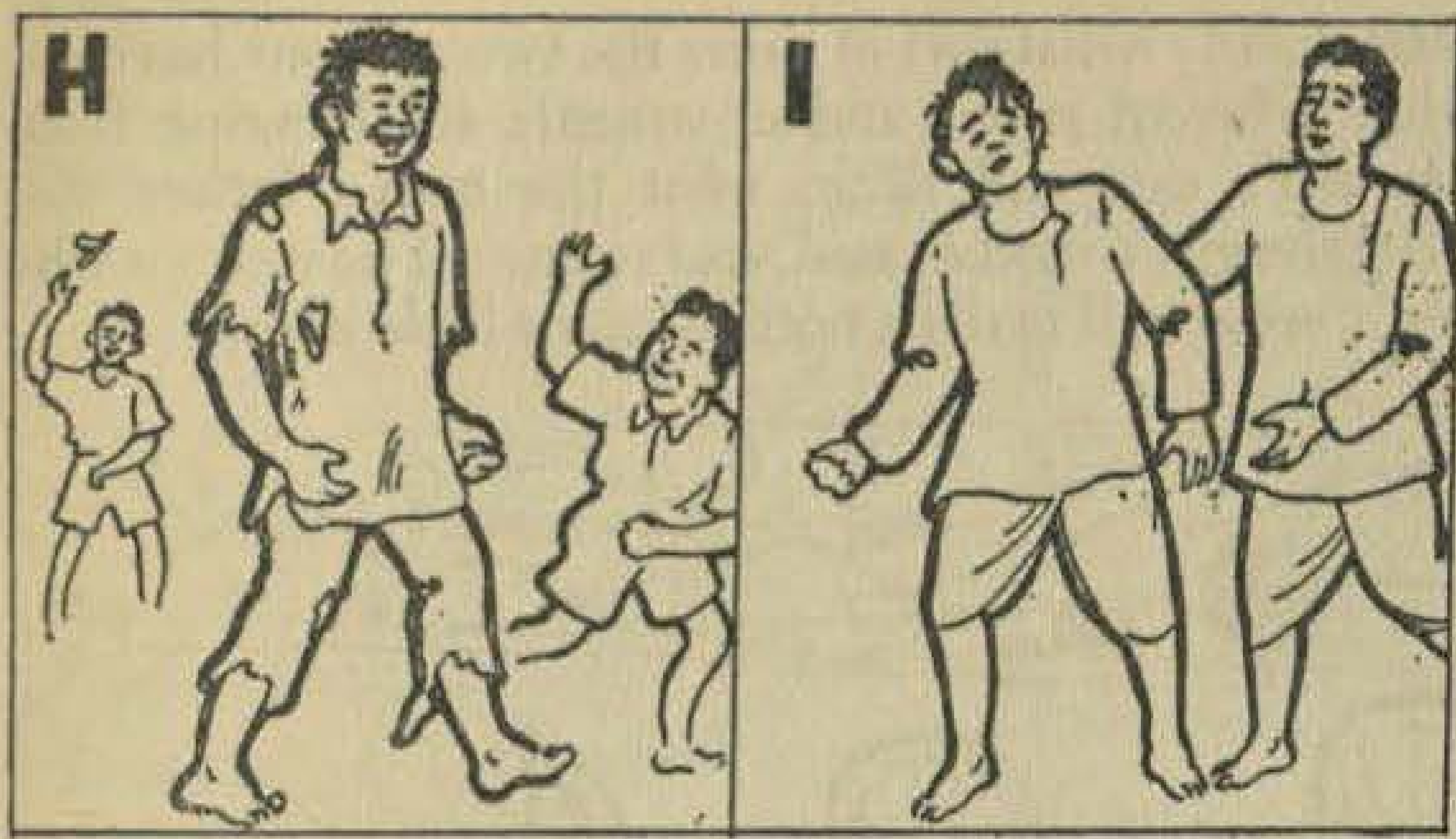


E. All of us, men, women, boys and girls, have certain tendencies in common. For example, we all have a tendency to keep away from anything which is unpleasing or dirty. We all have a tendency to give a laugh when we see someone slipping on a bit of 'banana' skin. We all have a tendency to give a cry when we are in danger. These tendencies are common to all persons. But there are certain tendencies which are special only to certain persons. For example, certain men have a tendency to be late. There are men who are never able to get to work or to a meeting in time. Of such men we say that they have a tendency to be late.



F. Ram is reading a letter from Gopal's teacher. The letter is about what Gopal does and says in school and how he does and says it—it is about Gopal's behaviour in school. The teacher says in the letter that Gopal's behaviour at school is very bad. Gopal goes on talking all the time ; he never lets other boys do their work ; his language is very rough and unkind ; and he frequently has fights with other boys. Gopal's behaviour at school is very bad, says the teacher, and Ram will have to do something about it. The teacher has given Gopal a punishment very frequently, but punishment has had no effect on Gopal's behaviour. And if there is no change in his behaviour in less than a month, says the teacher, he will have to send him away from the school. Ram is very unhappy about his son's behaviour at school. His son's behaviour at school gives him a feeling of shame. Gopal sees that he has done wrong and is very unhappy about it. He has a feeling of shame as well. He is saying to his father that he will be a good boy from now on and will not give his teacher any more trouble.

G. But Gopal's behaviour is as bad as ever. Sita has come to a friend's house with Gopal for tea. Gopal is unable to keep quiet even for a minute. He takes down books from the shelf, he makes the pages of the books dirty, he gets a glass on the table broken. His behaviour in company is shocking. Sita is very unhappy. Her son's behaviour has given her a feeling of shame. She is saying to her friend that she is very sorry.



H. Who is this man ? His behaviour is very strange. Sometimes he keeps on talking to himself. Sometimes he keeps on laughing to himself, for no reason. And sometimes he gives a loud cry and goes on crying, again without any reason. What he says or does has no sense. The man's behaviour is not normal ; he is off his head. A number of small boys and girls are running after him and making sport of him. This is a very cruel thing to do. The man is physically healthy ; but he has a disease of the mind. That is why his behaviour is so strange.

I. This man is not off his head but his behaviour is equally strange. Take a good look at him. He is not quite upright on his legs ; he goes rolling from one side of the road to the other. His eyes are very red. Five minutes back he went round and round an electric light. He is saying something to himself, but his words are not quite clear. Why is the man's behaviour so strange ? He has probably been drinking at a bar ; he has had so much drink that he is now unable to keep his balance. If someone does not take him home he will never be able to get there himself. The man's brother is looking on while the man is attempting to keep upright on his legs. The brother is very unhappy. The man's behaviour has given the brother a feeling of shame. The brother will now take the man home and put him to bed. Before tomorrow morning the effects of the drink will have gone and the man will be very unhappy about his foolish behaviour. He will have a feeling of shame.

A1 : Where is the baby's thumb ?
2 : What sort of look has Sita on her face ?
3 : What does Sita do every time she sees the baby with the thumb in his mouth ?
4 : What does the baby do the minute she goes away ?
5 : What is the doctor's opinion about this ?

B1 : Why does the baby keep putting his thumb in his mouth ?
2 : Do babies do this consciously ?
3 : What sort of tendency have some (other, still other) babies ?
4 : What tendency have all babies in fact ?

C1 : What is Gopal (Mohan) doing ?
2 : Who is looking on ?
3 : Why is it no use doing anything about it ?

D1 : Why does Gopal keep on making a noise ?
2 : Why does Mohan keep on making the wall dirty ?
3 : Does a boy keep making a noise consciously ?
4 : What sort of tendency have some (other, still other) boys ?
5 : What tendency have all boys ?

E : All of us have certain tendencies in common. Give one (a second, a third) example.

F1 : What is Ram reading ?
2 : What is the letter about ?
3 : How is Gopal's behaviour in school ?
4 : Why does the teacher say that Gopal's behaviour in school is bad ?
5 : What is the point of the letter ?
6 : Has punishment had any effect on Gopal's behaviour ?
7 : What will the teacher do if there is no change in Gopal's behaviour ?
8 : What is Ram unhappy about ?
9 : What sort of feeling does his son's behaviour give him ?
10 : Why is Gopal unhappy ?
11 : What sort of feeling has he ?
12 : What is he saying to his father ?

G1 : Where is Sita ?
2 : With whom has she come to her friend's house ?
3 : Is Gopal quiet ?
4 : How is his behaviour in company ?
5 : Give one (another) example of his shocking behaviour.
6 : Is Sita happy ?

H1 : How is this man's behaviour ?
2 : Why do you say that his behaviour is strange ?
3 : The man's behaviour is not normal. What is wrong with him ?
4 : What are the boys and girls doing ?
5 : He is physically quite healthy. Why is his behaviour so strange then ?

I1 : How is this man's behaviour ?
2 : Is he off his head ?
3 : What is strange about his walk ?
4 : What is the colour of his eyes ?
5 : What did he do five minutes back ?
6 : What is he saying to himself ?
7 : Why is his behaviour so strange ?
8 : Will he be able to get to his house by himself ?
9 : Who is looking on ?
10 : Why is the brother unhappy ?
11 : Where will the brother take him ?
12 : What sort of feeling will the man have when the effects of the drink have gone ?

Unit 56: Prose and Verse

detail, prose, verse, rhythm, print



A. Karim is reading a newspaper. He is going through a list, on page 4, of the most important bits of the news which is in the paper today. This is the first bit of news in the list.

There was a plane smash near Calcutta in which a number of persons came to their death—see page 6 *for details.*

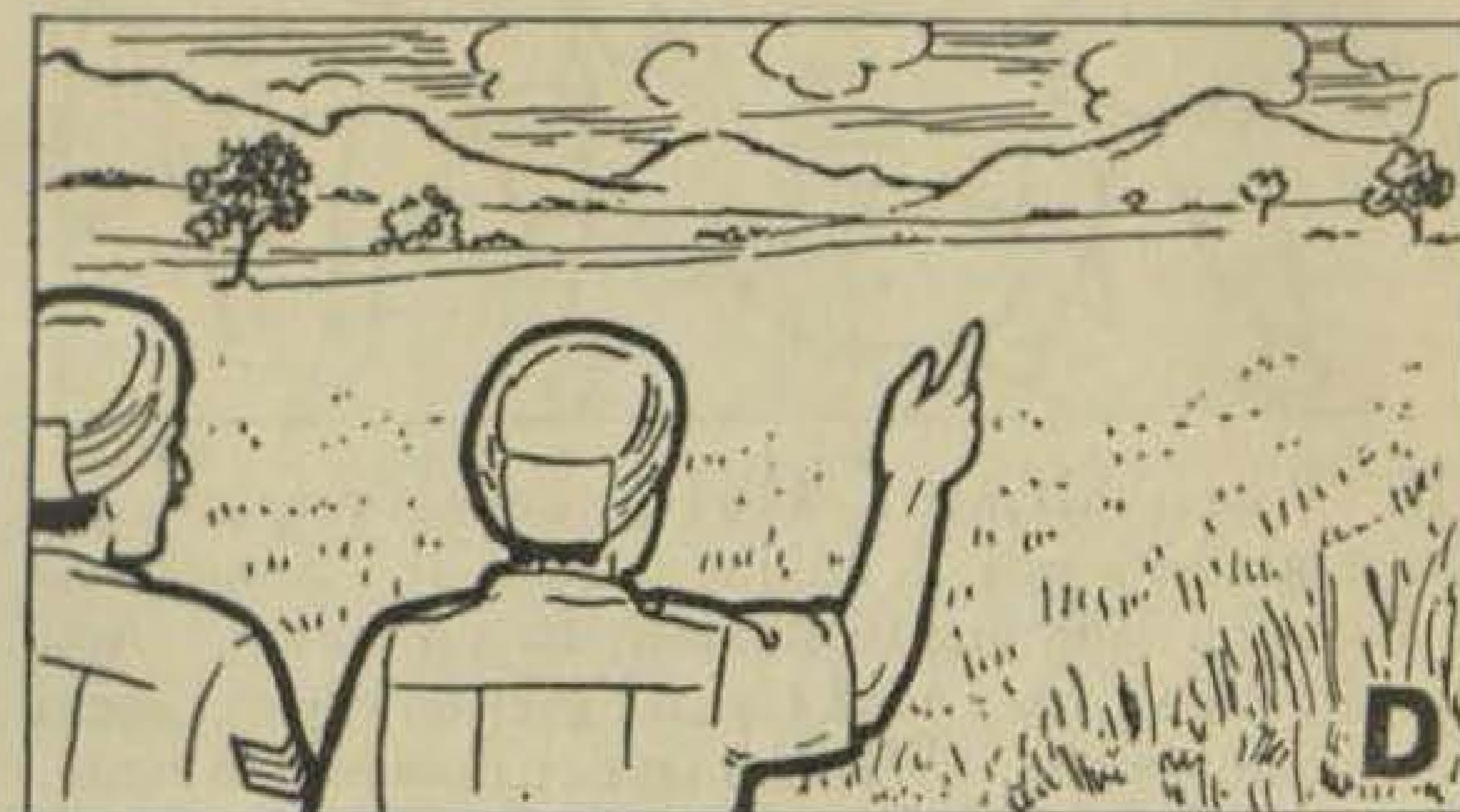
There are no details here, on page 4. The news does not say when the smash took place, what sort of plane it was, what was the number of persons in the plane, what were their names, or what was the cause of the smash. The news does not give any details; it only says that there was a smash near Calcutta in which a number of persons came to their death. To get the details Karim will have to see page 6.

B. The second bit of news on the list is:

The Allies have made a landing in Java. See page 7 for details.

There are no details here, on page 4. The news does not say when the Allies made a landing, where the Allies made a landing, or how strong the Allied forces are. The news does not say if there was any fighting before the Allies were able to make a landing. It does not give any details. To get the details Karim will have to see page 7.

C. Karim has two letters today, one from his brother Ismail and the other from his sister Fatima. Ismail's letter is very short. It only says that the death of his uncle (father's brother) has taken place, but it does not give any details. It does not say what the cause of his death was, how long he was ill, what medical attention he got, where his death took place and who was present at the time. The letter does not give any of these details at all; it only says that the death of Ismail's uncle has taken place. But Ismail's sister Fatima has sent a longer letter giving him all the details. Whenever Fatima sends him a letter she gives him a detailed account of everything which has taken place in the village. This is because women are more interested in details than men are. When, for example, somebody gets married a woman will make a note of every little detail—what sort of dress the two persons have on, what different jewels and ornaments are hanging from the girl's ears and neck, what the man's father did, what the girl's mother said, and so on. The women who are present will make a note of every little detail.



D. When a sepoy has to give a picture of a stretch of country which is in front of him he first gives a general picture of the country and then a detailed picture of it. This is how, for example, Karim gives a general picture:

The country generally is open, flat, and full of grass. In the far distance there is a range of low hills from which a river comes down.

E. That is Karim's general picture of the country. Now he goes on to give some details. He first gives a picture of the foreground, then a picture of the middle distance and last a picture of the background. Here is his detailed picture of the country:

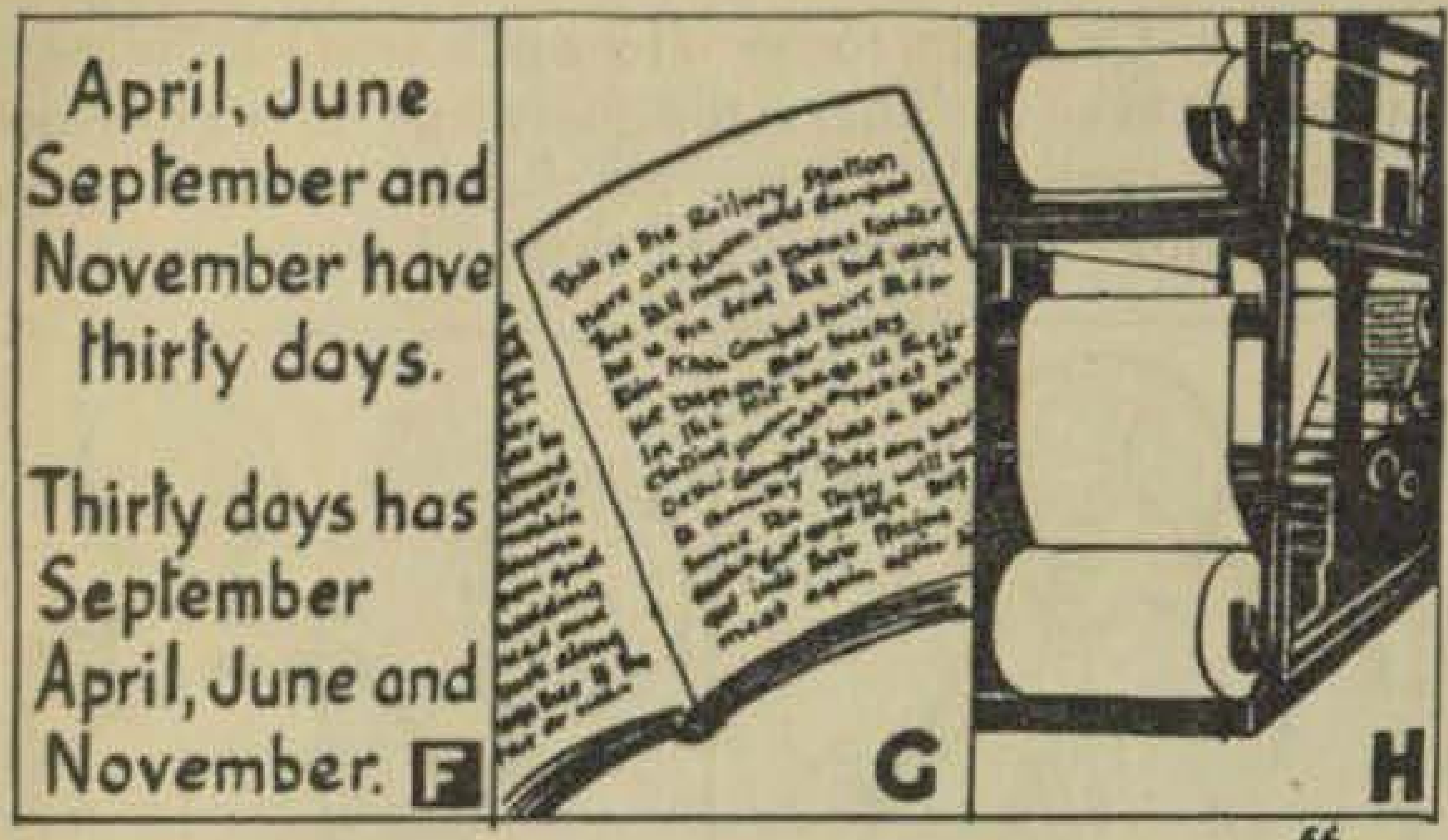
The foreground is open, flat and full of grass. In the centre foreground there is a river with a bridge across it. Parallel to the river there is a wide road. Between the road and the river there are two houses with high walls all round them. On the left side of the river is a rice-field, in the middle of which there is a Persian well.

The middle distance is open country, like the foreground, but it is not as flat as the foreground. The river here is much narrower. Across the river is a bridge with two arches supporting it. On the left side of the river is a little building which seems like a temple. Round the temple is a garden of fruit trees. In the left middle distance are a number of structures which may be the houses of fishermen.

And so on. That is an example of how a soldier gives a picture of a stretch of country which is in front of him. First there is a general picture; then there is a picture which gives all the details.

F. A statement may be in prose or it may be in verse. For example the statement, "April, June, September and November have thirty days" is in prose. But the same statement may be put into verse:

Thirty days has September
April, June and November.



All the units in this book are in prose. The language of all common talk is prose. Then why do we have verse? Because verse is more beautiful than prose. A beautiful thought in prose seems even more beautiful in verse. There is more music, more rhythm, in verse than in prose. Verse is more readily kept in the memory than prose. For all these reasons a great number of stories are put into verse. The Ramayana and Mahabharata, for example, are completely in verse.

G. Interesting stories or beautiful verses are sometimes put into print. The print may be good or it may be bad. Take a look at the print in picture G. It is a page from a book. Is the print good or bad? The print is very small; in places it is not even clear; the lines are not well-spaced. The printing is bad all through. And there are a great number of printer's errors. Some letters have been dropped; others are in the wrong order. For example, this is how the word *father* has been printed: *fahter*. In the word *father* the letters *t* and *h* are in the wrong order; the letter *t* has to come first and the letter *h* second. The book is badly printed. If the printers had taken more trouble the printing might have been better.

H. Have you ever been over a printing works, where books, newspapers, guides, calendars, pictures and so on are printed? Here is a picture of a printing machine. It is an automatic machine which does all the operations like inking the letters, numbering the pages and folding the paper by itself. This is the sort of machine on which printing is done today.

A1: What is Karim reading?
2: What is he going through?
3: What is the first bit of news on the list?
4: Are there any details of the smash on this page?
5: On which page are the details given?
6: Give one (a second, a third, a fourth, a fifth) detail about the smash.
7: Which page will Karim have to see to get the details?

B1: What is the second bit of news on the list?
2: Are there any details about the landing on this page?
3: On which page are the details given?
4: Why do you say that there are no details on this page?
5: What page will Karim have to see to get the details?

C1: Karim has two letters. From whom are they?
2: Whose letter is short?
3: What news does it give?
4: Does it give any details about Karim's uncle's death?
5: Who has given him all the details about his uncle's death?
6: What five details about his uncle's death does Fatima's letter give him?
7: Why are Fatima's letters longer than Ismail's?
8: Why are women's letters generally longer than men's letters?
9: What different details will a woman make note of when somebody is getting married?

D1: When a sepoy has to give a picture of the country which is in front of him, what sort of picture does he give first?
2: What sort of picture does he give after that?
3: Give a general picture of the country which is in front of Karim.

E: Give a detailed picture of the foreground (middle distance).

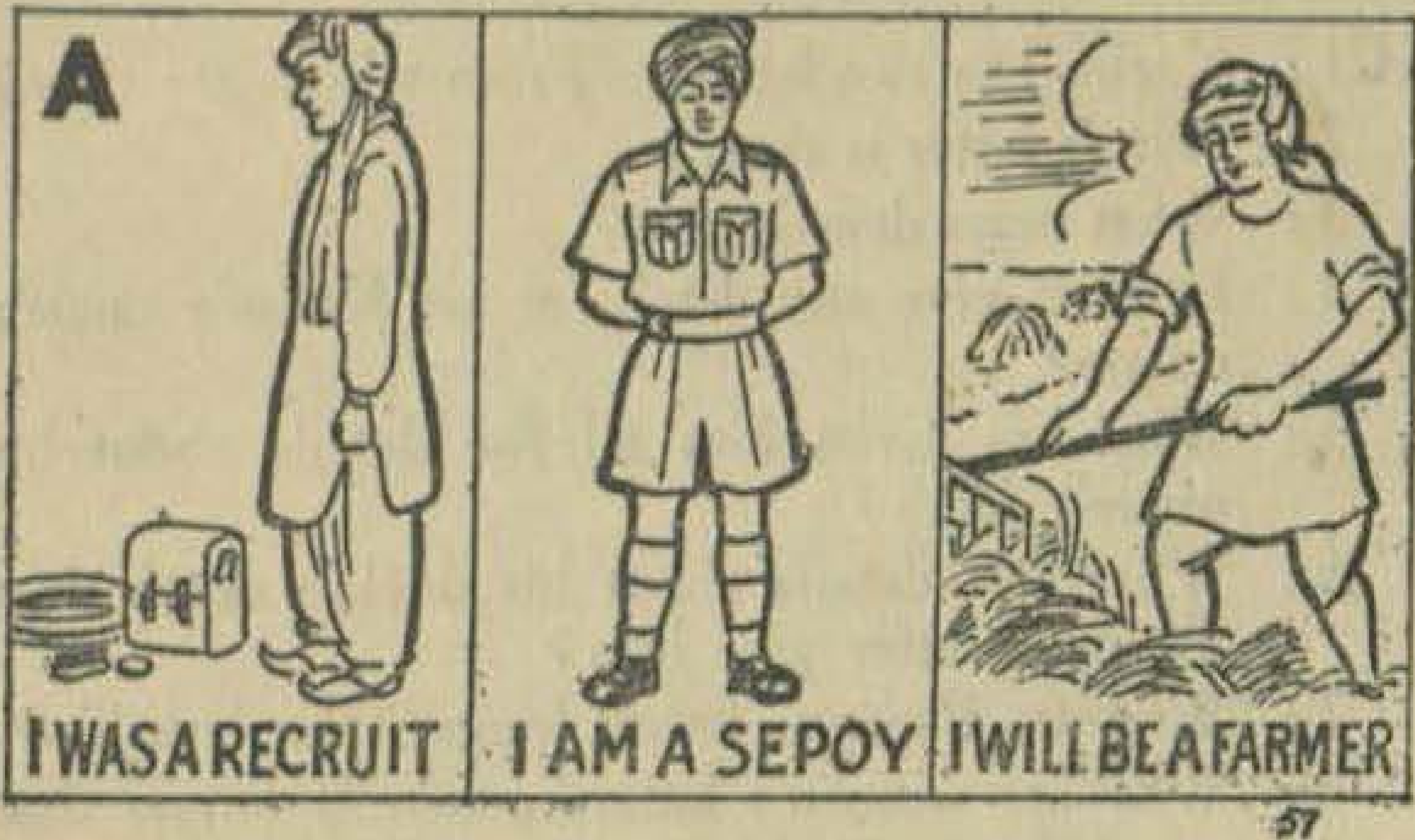
F1: In what two forms may a statement be?
2: Give an example of a statement in prose.
3: How would you put the same statement in verse?
4: Are the units in this book in prose or in verse?
5: What is the language of all common talk?
6: Then why do we have verse?
7: Which is more beautiful, a thought in prose or the same thought in verse?
8: Which has more music (rhythm) in it, prose or verse?
9: What two books are completely in verse?

G1: What do we sometimes do with interesting stories or beautiful verses?
2: Is the print in picture G good or bad?
3: Why do you say that the print is bad?
4: Are there any printer's errors in it?
5: What two sorts of printer's errors are there in it?
6: How has the word *father* been printed?
7: What is wrong with the word?
8: What is the right order?
9: Why is the book so badly printed?

H1: What sort of things are printed at a printing works?
2: What is this a picture of?
3: What sort of machine is it?
4: What different operations does it do?

Unit 57 : What is History ?

statement, past, present, future, event, history



A. The statement 'I was a recruit' is a statement about the past. It says what I was sometime back. The statement 'I am a sepoy' is a statement about the present. It says what I am now. And the statement 'I will be a farmer' is a statement about the future. It says what I will be some time from today. In the same way when we are talking about the present we say 'I am giving you some money.' When we are talking about the past we say 'I gave you some money'. And when we are talking about the future we say, 'I will give you some money.' This time or today is present. Yesterday or the day before yesterday or the day before that are all past. And tomorrow, the day after tomorrow or the day after that are all future. If this year is 1945, 1945 will be the present year, 1944, 1943, 1942 and so on will be past years and 1946, 1947, 1948 and so on will be future years.

B. There is a tendency for living conditions to become better as the years go by. Living conditions at present are much better than they were in the past. And there is a hope that living conditions in the future will be even better than they are at present. At the present time, because of the inventions and discoveries of science, we are producing more food, clothing, houses and other things for distribution than in the past, and we have a hope that in the future we will go on producing even more food, clothing, houses and other things than at present. In the past, when there were no machines, men had to do hard work for long hours before they were able to get any food from the land or make cloth from cotton. But at present a great part of the work which men had to do with their muscles before is being done more quickly by machines. In fact men of science say that machines have given us enough power to get all the food and make all the cloth for which we have a need, with all men working only two or three hours a day.

C. Karim is seated at a table. He is in deep thought. What is troubling him ? It is the question of his future which is troubling him. What is he to do ? Is he to go back to his farm ? Is he to take a job in a factory ? Or is he to go into some trade ? What is his future to be ? That is the question. It is a question which is troubling a great number of soldiers at the present time—the question of their future.



D. Karim is taking thought. It seems to him that industry has a better future than farming. A man who takes a job in industry makes more money as a rule than a man working on a farm. So maybe it will be better to take a job as a mechanic in one of the newer industries like the motor-car industry. The motor-car industry in India has a great future before it. If Karim takes a job as a mechanic in a factory which makes cars there is little danger of his being out of work at any time in the future.

E. Hussein and Ali are reading in the information room. Hussein is reading a book about the history of India. What is history ? A history is a true story. What does a history of India give us ? A history of India gives us an account of the more important things which took place in this country. It says something about great rulers like Asoka or Akbar or Haidar Ali—the 'laws' which they made, the buildings which they put up and the good which they did. It says something about great soldiers like Rana Pratap or Shivaji or Tippu Sultan or Ranjit Singh—and the wars which they made. It says what sort of existence our great teachers of religion like Buddha or Guru Nanak or Kabir had, the wise things which they said, and the teachings which they gave. It says when and how the Europeans came to India and why the British and the French came to blows in the Deccan.

F. This is not the only sort of knowledge which a history of India gives us. In addition a history of India gives us a knowledge about living conditions in the past—what sort of food they had, what sort of dress they put on, what sort of houses they were living in, what sort of business they did and what sort of games they took a pleasure in. This is the sort of knowledge which a history of India gives us.

G. History gives us an account of some of the important things which took place in the past. Another way of saying this is that history is a record of events which took place in the past. Any important thing which takes place is an event. The two greatest events

in a man's existence are his birth and his death. In the existence of a recruit the Attestation Parade is an important event. The durbar at which a farmer is given a reward for having the best cow in the village is a great event in the existence of the farmer.

H. Ali is reading a history of the war with Germany and Japan. While reading he makes a list of the chief events of this war like the German attack on Poland, on September 3, 1939, the fall of France, the Battle of Britain, the American landing in North Africa and so on, down to the surrender of Germany on May 8, 1945, and the surrender of Japan on August 14, 1945.

A1 : 'I was a recruit'. Is this a statement about the present or the past ?

2 : Why do you say that it is a statement about the past ?

3 : 'I am a sepoy'. Is this a statement about the present or the future ?

4 : Why do you say that it is a statement about the present ?

5 : Give an example of a statement about the future.

6 : Why do you say it is a statement about the future ?

7 : 'I am giving you some money.' Is that past or present ?

8 : 'I gave you some money.' Is that past or future ?

9 : 'I will give you some money.' Is that future or present ?

10 : What is 'this time' or 'today' ?

11 : Is 'yesterday' and the 'day before yesterday' past or future ?

12 : What is tomorrow (the day after tomorrow, the day after that) ?

13 : If this year is 1945 what will 1945 be—present, past or future ?

14 : If this year is 1945 what will 1944 (1943, 1942) be ?

15 : If this year is 1945 what will 1946 (1947, 1948) be ?

B1 : Do living conditions become better or worse as the years go by ?

2 : Are living conditions in the present better or worse than living conditions in the past ?

3 : Will living conditions in the future be better or worse than living conditions at present ?

4 : More food, clothing and houses are produced at the present time than in the past. Why ?

5 : Why will we be able to go on producing more food, clothing and houses in the future than at present ?

6 : Why had men to do hard work for long hours in the past ?

7 : How had men to do a great part of their work in the past ?

8 : How is a great part of our work done now ?

9 : How much power have machines given us ?

10 : What do men of science say ?

C1 : Who is seated at the table ?

2 : What is he doing ?

3 : What is troubling him ?

4 : What sort of questions is he putting himself ?

5 : Is he the only one troubled by these questions ?

D1 : Which has a better future—industry or farming ?

2 : Who makes more money as a rule—a man who has a job in industry or a man who has a job on a farm ?

3 : Give an example of one of the newer industries.

4 : Which industry in India has a great future before it ?

5 : Why would it be a good thing for Karim to get a job in the motor-car industry ?

E1 : What are Hussein and Ali doing ?

2 : What sort of book is Hussein reading ?

3 : What is history ?

4 : What does a history of India give us ?

5 : Who are the three greatest rulers in Indian history ?

6 : What does history say about these rulers ?

7 : Who are the four greatest soldiers in Indian history ?

8 : What does history say about these soldiers ?

9 : Give the names of three great Indian teachers of religion.

10 : What does history say about them ?

F : What other sort of knowledge does a history of India give us ?

G1 : History gives us an account of some of the important things which took place in the past. What is another way of saying this ?

2 : What is an event ?

3 : What are the two greatest events in a man's existence ?

4 : What is one very important event in the existence of a recruit ?

5 : What is one great event in the existence of a farmer ?

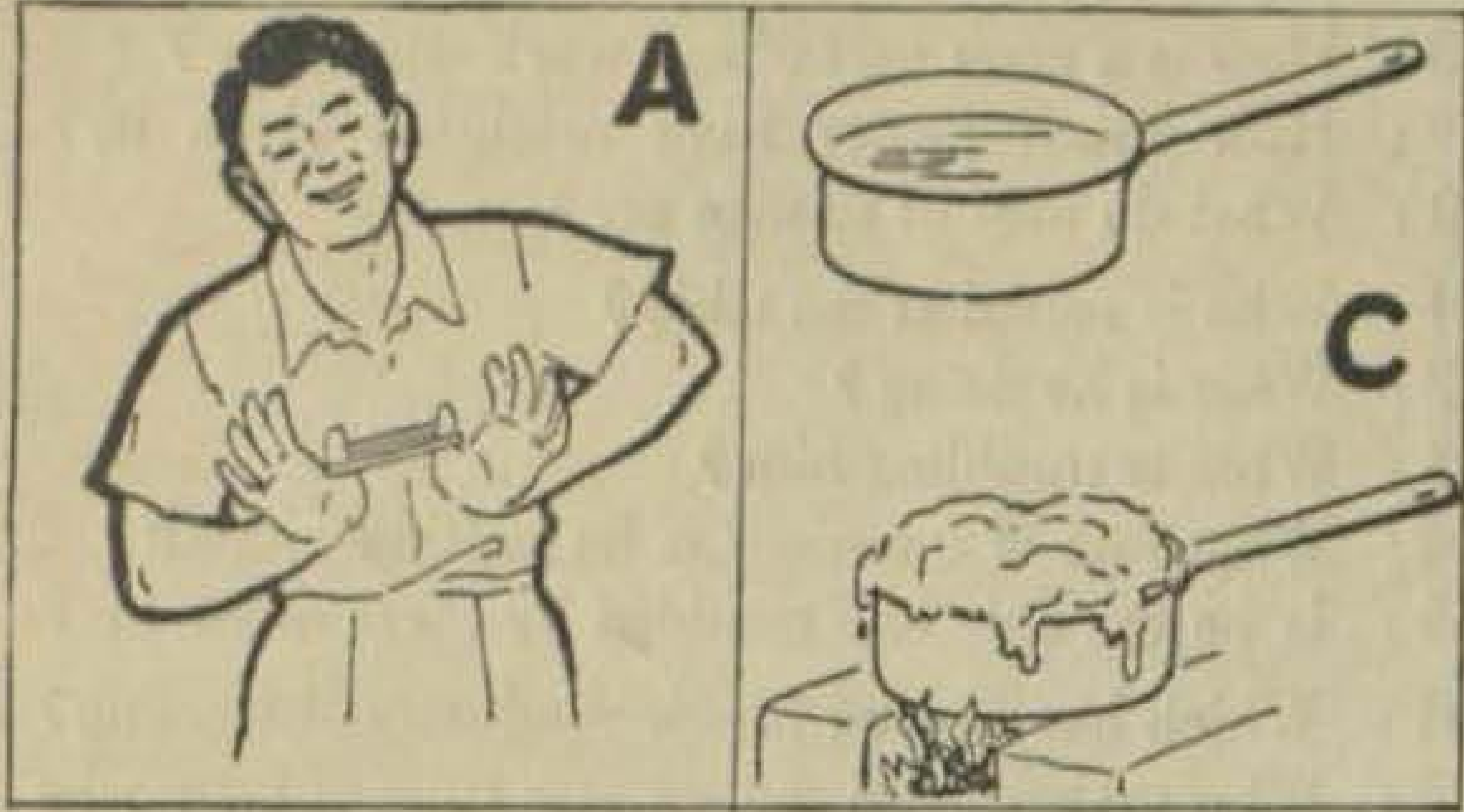
H1 : What is Ali reading ?

2 : What is he doing while reading a history of the war with Germany ?

3 : What was one (another, the third, the fourth, the fifth, the sixth) of the chief events of this war ?

Unit 58 : Expansion And Attraction

elastic, expansion, comparison, attraction



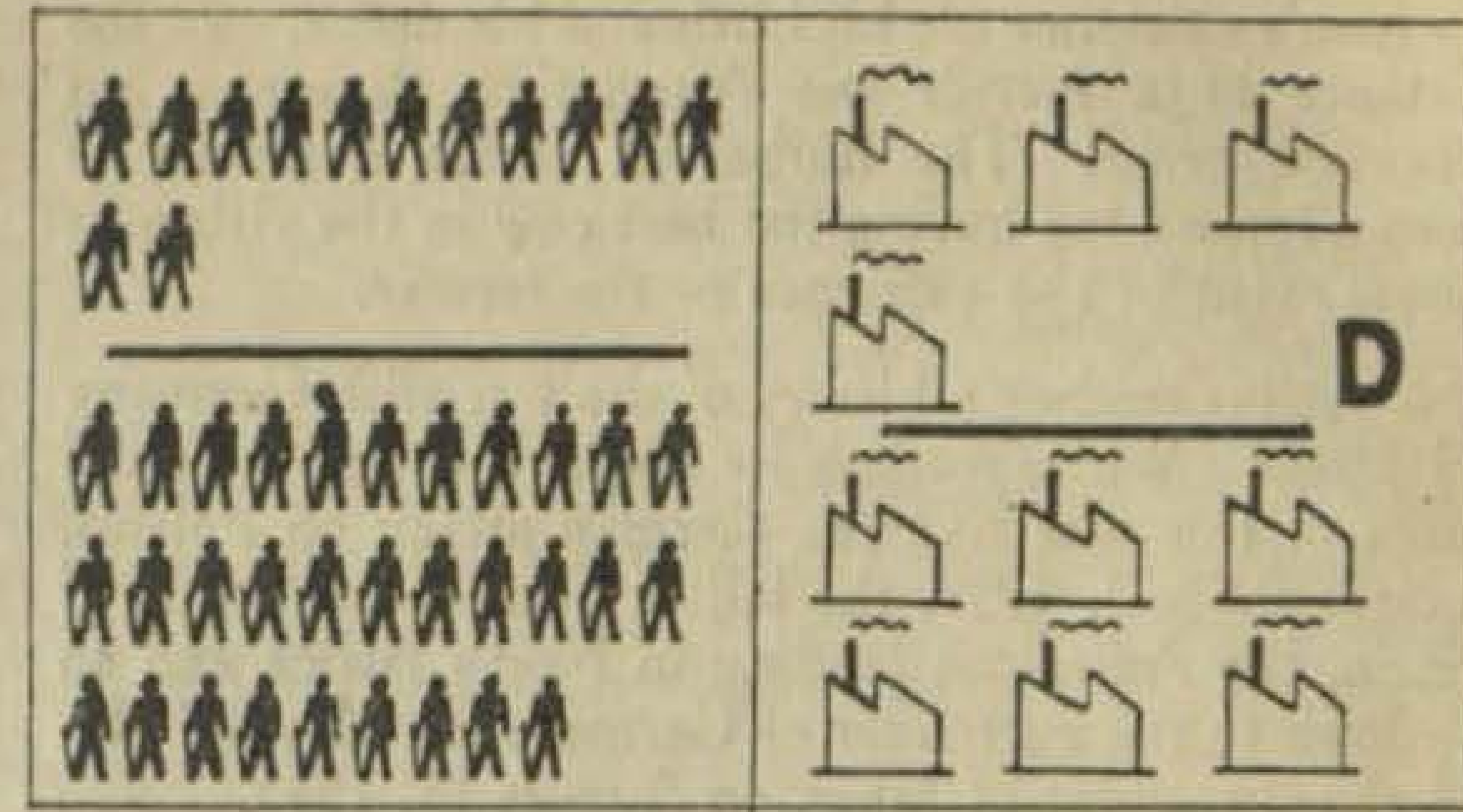
58

A. Govinda is giving a band of rubber a pull. When a rubber band is pulled it becomes longer. When Govinda lets go of one end it will go back to its normal size. A substance like rubber is elastic. Other substances which are elastic are wool and leather. A bit of thread is not elastic ; it is not possible to make a bit of thread longer by giving it a pull. If it is given a pull with some force it will be broken.

B. Not only substances but words may sometimes be elastic. Take a word like *support*, for example. It is possible to make this word longer by the addition of *-ing* or *-er* or *-ed*. The addition of *-ing* gives us *supporting*. The addition of *-ed* gives us *supported*. The word *support* is an elastic word. Now take a word like *advertisement*. It is not possible to make the word *advertisement* longer by the addition of *-ing* or *-er* or *-ed*. The word *advertisement* is not an elastic word.

C. The size of a thing may be changed not only by giving it a pull but by heating it as well. If a rod of iron one yard long is heated it may become longer by a quarter of an inch. When a substance is heated there is an increase in its size. Another way of saying this is : When a substance is heated there is an expansion in its size. The substance may be a solid or a liquid or a gas, but, whatever it is, when it is heated expansion takes place. For example, when milk which is over a fire comes to the boiling point there is a sudden expansion and the boiling milk goes over the edge of the pot. When we take in air the size of the chest is increased ; there is an expansion of the chest. In the same way when air is pumped into a tyre-tube or a football there is expansion ; the size of the tube or the football is increased.

D. The peace-time Army of India was about 150,000 strong. When war was started in September 1939 there was a great expansion of the armed forces. The number of men in the Army, Navy and Air Force was increased. The number has gone on increasing, till today there are more than two million men in the Indian fighting forces. The expansion of the Army



59

had a great effect on Indian industry, specially on that part of industry which was producing war material. The number of factories was increased and new industries came into existence. There was a greater expansion of industry than at any time in the history of this country.

E. When you say that one thing is better than another you are making a comparison between the quality of the one and the quality of the other. When you say that your book is thicker than my book you are making a comparison between the size of my book and the size of your book. When you say that an apple is sweeter than a nut you are making a comparison between the taste of an apple and the taste of a nut. And when you say that a person is as sharp as a knife you are making a comparison between the brain of the person and the edge of a knife.



F. Govinda is playing with a magnet (a bit of metal with the form of a horse-shoe) and a bit of iron. The magnet has a strange power over the bit of iron. When the magnet comes within some distance of the bit of iron the bit of iron is suddenly pulled to the magnet by a certain force. To this force we give the name attraction. We say that there is a force of attraction between the magnet and the bit of iron, or that the magnet has an attraction for the bit of iron.

G. These bees were going back to their hive when suddenly they got the smell of a flower. Turning round they went quickly in the direction of the flower, as if they were pulled to it by some force. In other words we might say that this flower had an attraction

for the bees. In the same way we might say that a bright light has an attraction for certain sorts of flies, that games have an attraction for boys and girls, that jewels and ornaments have an attraction for women, and that young men and young women have an attraction for one another.



58

H. A great number of soldiers who have come from the villages and are at present living in towns have no desire to go back to the villages. They make a comparison between living conditions in the village and living conditions in the town, and they see that living conditions in most towns are much better than living conditions in most villages. The town has a certain attraction for the villager. In a town there are schools, colleges, stores, dawakhanas, good roads, trams and buses. There are newspapers, radio sets and interesting company. All these things have an attraction for the villager. Other attractions in a town are cinemas, play-houses, hotels and bars. The town has its attractions for the villager, but the countryside in its turn has an attraction for the townsman. In the countryside there are wide open spaces, long walks by the side of a river or a 'tank,' tall trees which give us shade, beautiful flowers which send out a sweet smell, strange birds which give us songs. These are some of the attractions of the countryside.

A1 : What is Govinda doing ?
2 : What is the effect of giving a rubber band a pull ?
3 : What will be the effect if you let go ?
4 : What is one quality of rubber ?
5 : Give two examples of substances which are elastic.
6 : Give one example of a thing which is not elastic.
7 : Why do you say that a bit of thread is not elastic ?

B1 : Give an example of a word which is elastic.
2 : Why do you say that the word *support* is elastic ?
3 : What does the addition of *-ing* (*-ed*, *-er*) to the word *support* give us ?
4 : Give an example of a word which is not elastic.
5 : Why do you say that the word *advertisement* is not elastic ?

C1 : The size of a thing may be changed by giving it a pull. In what other way may the size of a thing be changed ?
2 : What will be the effect of heating a rod of iron which is one yard long ?
3 : When a substance is heated there is an increase in its size. What is another way of saying this ?
4 : What takes place when a solid (liquid, gas) is heated ?
5 : When does milk undergo sudden expansion ?
6 : When does our chest undergo expansion ?
7 : When does a tyre-tube (football) undergo expansion ?

D1 : How strong was the peace-time Indian Army ?
2 : When was there a great expansion of the armed forces ?
3 : How strong are the fighting forces today ?
4 : What had the expansion of the Army an effect on ?
5 : On what part of industry had it a special effect ?
6 : Why do you say that it had a special effect on that part of industry which was producing war material ?

E1 : What are you doing when you say that one thing is better than another ?
2 : When you say that your book is thicker than my book (an apple is sweeter than a nut, a person is as sharp as a knife) what are you making a comparison between ?

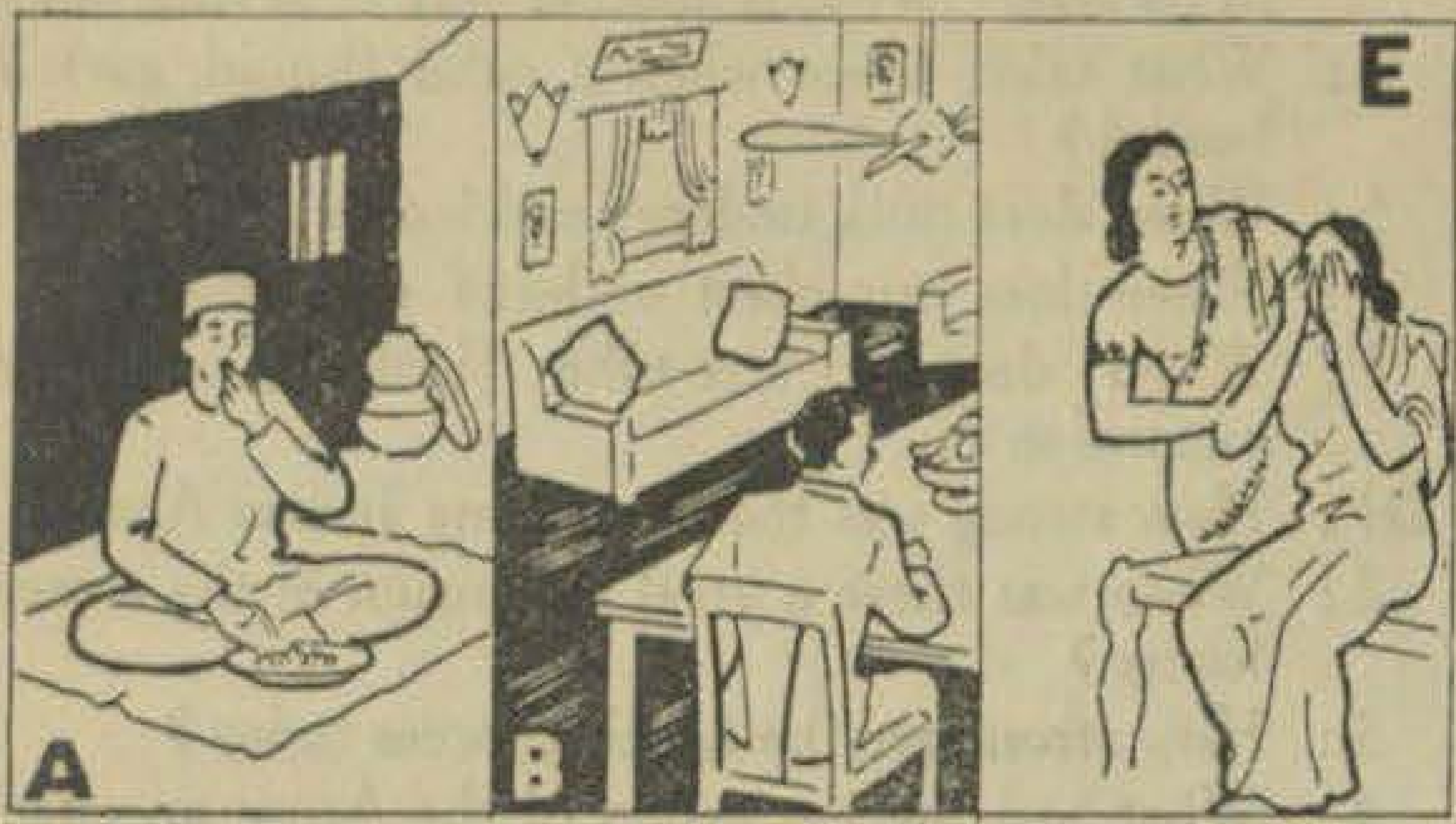
F1 : What is Govinda playing with ?
2 : What sort of power has a magnet over a bit of iron ?
3 : What effect has it on a bit of iron ?
4 : What name do we give to this force ?
5 : Between what is there a force of attraction ?
6 : What is another way of saying this ?

G1 : Where were these bees going ?
2 : Why did they go quickly in the direction of the flower ?
3 : How might we say this using the word *attraction* ?
4 : What has a bright light an attraction for ?
5 : What has an attraction for boys and girls ?
6 : What has an attraction for women ?
7 : Who have an attraction for one another ?

H1 : Why have a great number of soldiers no desire to go back to their villages ?
2 : What do they see when they make a comparison between living conditions in towns and living conditions in villages ?
3 : What has a certain attraction for a villager ?
4 : What things in a town have an attraction for villagers ?
5 : What are the other attractions in a town ?
6 : For whom has the countryside an attraction ?
7 : What are some of the attractions of the countryside ?

Unit 59 : Comfort And Art

comfort, design, approval, art



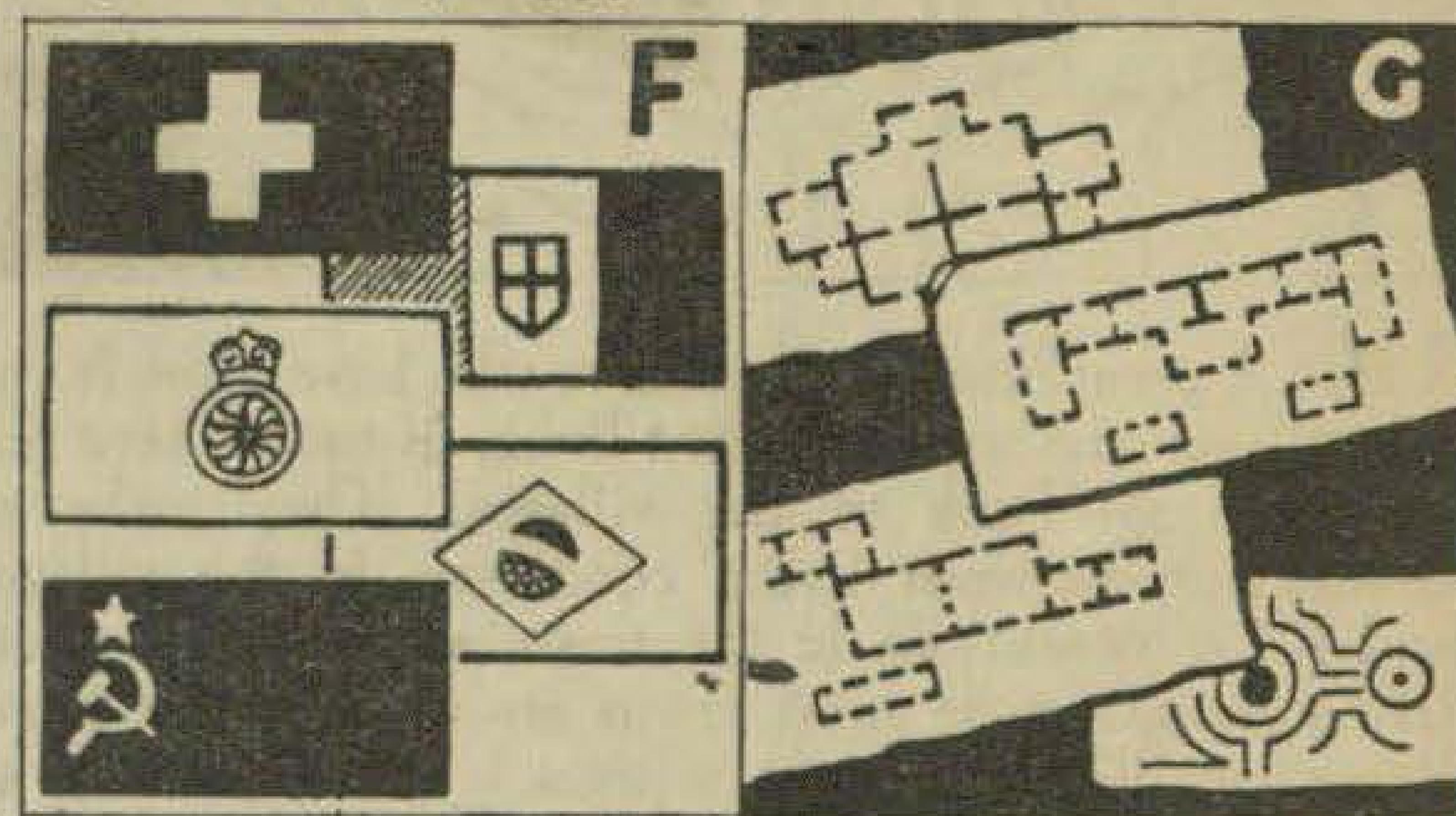
A. Pal is a mill-worker. His pay is twenty rupees a month. Take a look at the inside of the room in which he is having his meal. It is a small dark room with a narrow window and a low roof. The floor is frequently wet. He goes to work six days a week, and on Sundays he is so tired that he is unable to do anything but have a rest in front of his house. He never sees a newspaper ; he has no radio; he does not go to the pictures on Saturdays ; and for him there are no picnics out in the country. He has no comforts at all. It is a very hard existence.

B. Ram is the secretary of the mill in which Pal is working. His salary is eight hundred rupees a month. Take a look at the inside of the room in which Ram is having his meal. It is a long, wide room, full of light and air. On Saturdays he takes his family to the pictures. He has a motor car, and every Sunday he goes into the country for a picnic. There is a great amount of comfort in this sort of existence.

C. There is no comfort in living in a dark and dirty place which is frequently wet. There is a certain comfort in living in a house which has long, wide rooms which are full of air and light. There is a certain comfort in being able to have a rest on a soft seat by a fire in the winter. There is a certain comfort in sleeping in a warm soft bed with a thick cover when the weather is cold. Pal has not one of these comforts—no soft seats, no warm bed, no good food and no cinema.

D. Soldiers have a hard existence as a rule, specially when they are fighting in the front line. That is the reason why an organization has been formed to give the soldiers whatever comforts it is possible to give them. Here is a list of some of the comforts which this organization gives the present-day soldier—good food, indoor and out-door games, newspapers, radio-sets, films, music and journeys to interesting places.

E. The comfort which we have been talking about is physical comfort—comfort for the body. There is another sort of comfort—comfort for the mind. When we are unhappy or in trouble we sometimes go to our father or mother or to a friend for comfort—for kind, helping words which may make us less sad. In the picture the woman on the right is crying because her son has come to his death in the war. Her friend has now come to give her comfort. She is saying, " Death comes to everyone some day or other. Death is not the end of everything ; there is another existence after this. Maybe your son has gone to ' heaven ' and is much happier than he was on earth." This is how she is comforting her friend. Sometimes those who are in great trouble take comfort from the thought that there is a God who is at all times ready to give them help. Others who are very unhappy in their present existence take comfort from a belief in a future existence in which they will be very happy.



F. Here are the flags of five different countries. Every flag has a picture or a design on it. Some of the designs are very simple ; others are more complex. For example, the design on the flag of Switzerland is a very simple design—two short lines cutting one another. But the design on the flag of India is a more complex design. There is a crown on top, there is a circle under the crown, and inside the circle is a flower.

G. Here are some different sorts of design. They are designs for buildings. In one of the Army units there was a competition in designs for village buildings. The designs given in the picture are a selection from the designs which some of the soldiers sent in. The first is a design for a house. The second is a design for a school. The third is a design for a village recreation room. And the fourth is a design for a village well.

H. What is your opinion about the first design ? Does it seem to you to be a good design ? Has the design your approval ? If it seems to you to be a good design, that is to say, if you give the design your approval, make a copy of it. It may be of use to you when you are building a house for yourself. Does the second design have your approval ? If you give the second design your approval make a copy of it as before. It may be of use to you when you are building a school in your village.

I. Making designs may seem a very simple business to you. But it is not simple. Not everyone is able to make a design like the ones which you see on the flags. One has to be an expert in it. Making designs is an art. Making beautiful things which give one pleasure

is not simple ; it is an art. Painting pictures which give pleasure to the eye is an art. Making music which gives pleasure to the ear is an art. Writing books which give pleasure to the mind is an art.

J. Competitions like the one in building designs are taking place because everyone in this country today has a desire to make living conditions in the villages better than before. Indian soldiers have done great work in keeping this country safe from German and Japanese attacks. They have put every one of us in their debt. It is only right for the Government and the men and women of this country to do everything in their power to make the soldier's existence more interesting and happy when he goes back to his village home.

K. The Government has a good idea about what it is going to do to give the 'demobilized' soldier every help and support. The Government has its designs ready. Training schools have been designed for those men who have a desire to take jobs as mechanics in factories. Others who have got a knowledge of some trade or other will be helped to get jobs which they are able to do.

A1 : What is Pal ?
2 : What is his pay ?
3 : What is Pal doing ?
4 : Is the room bright or dark ?
5 : Is the window wide or narrow ?
6 : What sort of roof has the room ?
7 : What is frequently wrong with the floor ?
8 : Does he go to work every day ?
9 : Why is he unable to do anything on Sundays ?
10 : What does he do on Sundays ?
11 : Does he ever see a newspaper ?
12 : Has he a radio ?
13 : Does he go to the pictures on Saturdays ?
14 : Does he go for picnics in the country ?
15 : What is a short way of saying all this ?

B1 : What is Ram ?
2 : What is his salary ?
3 : What is Ram doing ?
4 : What sort of room is it ?
5 : Where does he take his family on Saturdays ?
6 : Where does he go every Sunday ?
7 : What would you say about this sort of existence ?

C1 : Is there any comfort in living in a dark and dirty place ?
2 : Is there any comfort in living in a house which has long and wide rooms and is full of air and light ?
3 : Is there any comfort in sleeping in a warm soft bed with a thick cover when the weather is cold ?
4 : Has Pal any of these comforts ?

D1 : Why has an organization been formed to give soldiers comforts ?
2 : What are some of the comforts which this organization gives soldiers today ?

E1 : What sort of comfort have we been talking about all this time ?
2 : What is another sort of comfort ?
3 : To whom do we go for comfort whenever we are unhappy or in trouble ?
4 : What is comfort for the mind ?
5 : Why is the woman on the right crying ?
6 : Why has her friend come now ?
7 : How is she comforting her friend ?
8 : How do those who are in great trouble sometimes take comfort ?
9 : How do others who are unhappy in their present existence take comfort ?

F1 : What are these flags ?
2 : What has every flag on it ?
3 : Are the designs simple or complex ?
4 : What is the design on the flag of Switzerland ?
5 : Is it a simple design or a complex design ?
6 : Which design is more complex than the design on the flag of Switzerland ?
7 : What sort of design has the flag of India on it ?

G1 : What are these designs for ?
2 : What sort of competition was there in one of the Army units ?
3 : By whom were these designs sent in ?
4 : What is the first (second, third, fourth) design for ?

H1 : Has the first design your approval ?
2 : When may it be of use to you if it has your approval ?
3 : Has the second design your approval ?
4 : When may it be of use to you if it has your approval ?

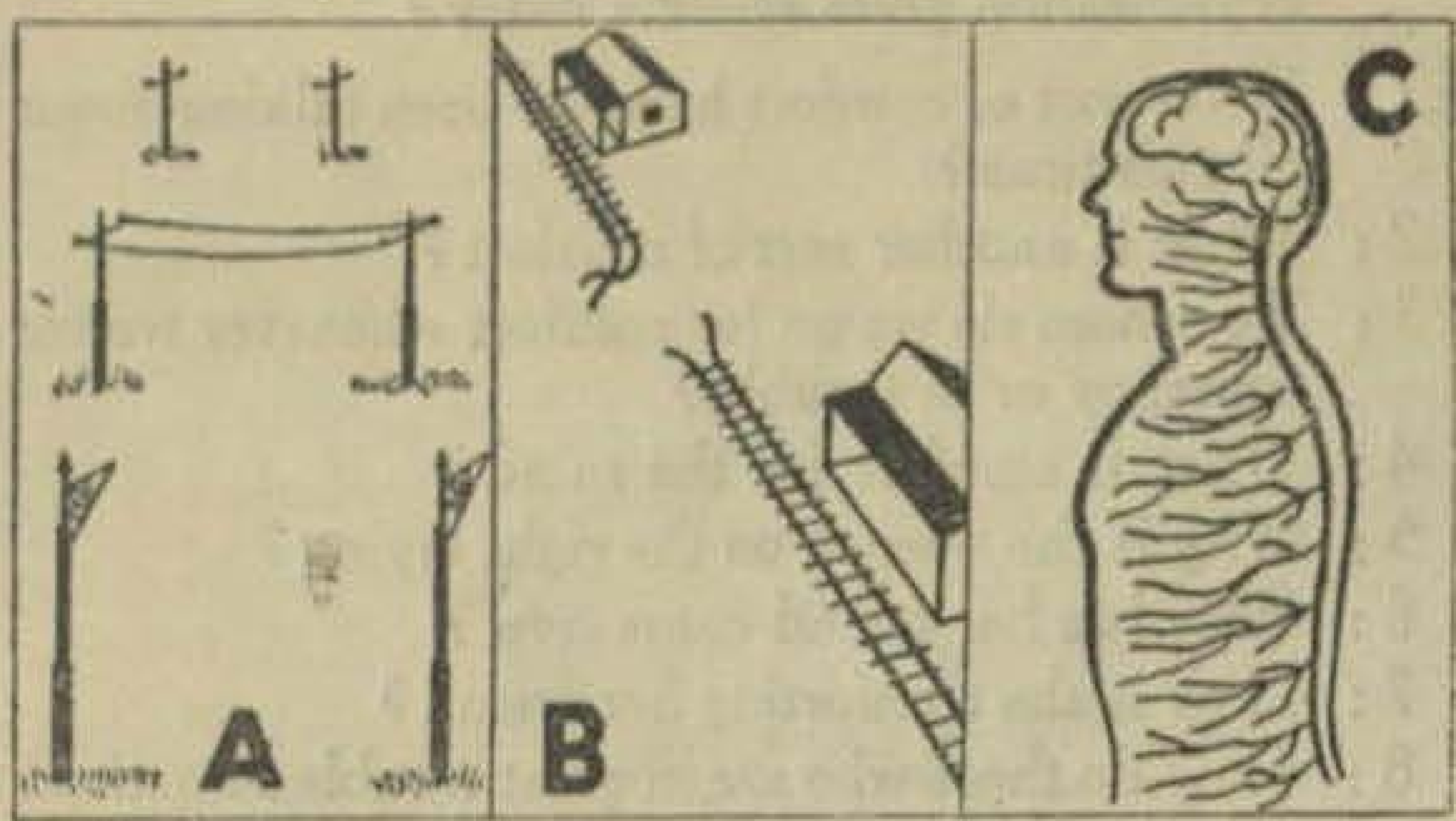
I1 : Why is designing not a simple business ?
2 : Is making designs an art ?
3 : Give one (a second, a third, a fourth) example of an art.

J1 : Why are competitions like the one in building designs taking place ?
2 : In what way have Indian soldiers put everyone of us in their debt ?
3 : What is right for the Government and the men and women of this country to do now ?

K1 : The Government has a good idea about what it is going to do. What is another way of saying this (using the word *design*) ?
2 : What have been designed for those who have a desire to take jobs in factories ?

Unit 60 : What's the Connection ?

connection, serious, regular



A. There are three pairs of posts here. In the background is a pair of telephone posts. In the middle distance is a pair of telegraph posts. In the foreground is a pair of electric posts. The tops of the telephone posts are not joined to one another. There is no connection between the tops of the telephone posts. But the tops of the telegraph posts in the middle distance are joined together. There is a connection between the tops of the telegraph posts. What makes the connection between the tops of the telegraph posts ? It is the wire which makes the connection between the tops of the telegraph posts. If this wire is broken there will be no connection between the two telegraph posts. The tops of the electric posts in the foreground are not joined. There is no connection between the tops of the electric posts. If there was a wire between the two posts there would be a connection between them.

B. These two railway stations were joined by railway lines. But last night there was much rain ; the level of the water in the fields got higher and higher and the railway lines were washed away. Now the railway lines are cut and there is no connection between the two stations.

C. How is the brain joined to the muscles of the different parts of a man's body ? What makes the connection between the brain and the other parts of a man's body ? It is the nerves which make the connection. News from the other parts and impulses from the brain are sent through the nerves. If the nerves are broken there will be no connection between the brain and the other parts of a man's body. If there is no connection between the brain and any other part of a man's body there will be no feeling in that part.

D. Do you see any connection between the pulling of a trigger and the firing of a bullet ? When the trigger is pulled the bullet goes out of the barrel with great force. When one thing is caused by another we say that there is a connection between the two. The explosion in the rifle which sends the bullet out with such great force is caused by the pulling of the trigger. That is why we say that there is a connection between the pulling of the trigger and the firing of the bullet. In the same way there is a connection between the wound which a man gets in a battle and the fever which comes later. The fever is the outcome of the wound.



E. These army commanders are having a very important meeting. A part of the army has been cut off by the enemy and is completely encircled. The commanders are giving deep thought to the question : What are we to do now ? The question is so important that they are talking to one another with very serious faces. From the look on their faces it is possible to see that they are talking about something which is very important. They are looking very serious.

F. In an army unit there are all sorts of men. Here are two sorts. The man on the left is full of humour ; he keeps smiling himself and he keeps others laughing all the time. He is very good company. He does not give much attention to his work ; he does only as much reading and shooting as is necessary. This sort of man is not serious. He is not serious about his shooting or his map-reading ; he does not give his work much attention. The man on the right is a different sort of man. He is very quiet, keeps to himself most of the times, does not take very much part in games, and seems as if he is in deep thought most of the time. When he is free he does reading or some other work. He is a very serious man. He is very serious about his work ; he takes his work seriously.

G. This man is looking very serious. Has anything gone wrong ? Has he had any bad news ? Yes, he has had very bad news. Only half an hour back he was shocked to get a wire to say that his sister, who was ill, is in great danger; that her condition is very serious. Only yesterday he had a letter which said that his sister was getting better. But last night the disease took a very serious turn and now the doctors have given up all hope. He is saying to himself that if she is seriously ill he has to go and see her quickly.

H. If you put a watch or a clock to your ears and make a note of the sound which it makes you will see that the time between any two ticks is the same—tick . . . tick . . . tick . . . tick . . . Another way of saying this is that the ticks of a watch or a clock are regular.

In the same way if you put your ear against the heart of your friend and make a note of the sound which the heart makes you will see that the time between any two 'beats' is the same—lub . . . dub . . . lub . . . dub . . . lub . . . dub. In other words the heart beats are regular.



60

I. These two groups of sepoys are on parade. In the group on the left the lines are regular. The distances between different lines are equal and the number of men in every line is the same. The sepoys are in regular lines. In the group on the right the lines are not regular. The distances between the different lines are not equal and the number of sepoys in every line is not the same. The sepoys are not in regular lines.

A1 : What is the number of posts here ?
2 : What sort of posts are there in the background (middle distance, foreground) ?
3 : The tops of the telephone posts are not joined to one another. What is another way of saying this (using the word *connection*) ?
4 : The tops of the telegraph posts in the middle distance are joined together. How would you say this using the word *connection* ?
5 : What makes the connection between the tops of the telegraph posts ?
6 : Why is there no connection between the telephone posts ?
7 : Is there a connection between the tops of the electric posts ?
8 : Why is there no connection between them ?

B1 : How were these two railway stations joined ?
2 : When was there much rain ?
3 : How were the railway lines washed away ?
4 : Why is there no connection between the railway stations now ?

C1 : What makes the connection between the brain and the other parts of a man's body ?
2 : How are news and impulses sent ?
3 : What will be the effect if the nerves are broken ?
4 : What will be the effect of that ?

D1 : Do you see any connection between the pulling of a trigger and the firing of a bullet ?
2 : When do we say that there is a connection between two things ?
3 : Why do we say that there is a connection between the pulling of a trigger and the firing of a bullet ?
4 : Why do we say that there is a connection between the wound which a man gets in a battle and the fever which comes later ?

E1 : What are these army commanders doing ?
2 : To what question are the commanders giving deep thought ?
3 : What gives us the idea that they are talking about something which is very important ?
4 : How are they looking ?

F1 : What sort of man is the one on the left ?
2 : Why do you say that he is full of humour ?
3 : How much reading and shooting does he do ?
4 : What do we say of this sort of man ?
5 : What is he not serious about ?
6 : Why do we say that the man on the right is a different sort of man ?
7 : What does he do when he is free ?
8 : What sort of man is he ?
9 : What is he serious about ?
10 : How does he take his work ?

G1 : Why is this man looking very serious ?
2 : What did the wire say about his sister ?
3 : What did the wire say about his sister's condition ?
4 : Why was he shocked to get this news ?
5 : When did the disease take a serious turn ?
6 : Is there any hope ?
7 : What is he saying to himself ?

H1 : Is the time between any two ticks of a watch the same or is it different ?
2 : What is another way of saying this ?
3 : Is the time between any two beats of a heart the same or is it different ?
4 : How would you say this in other words ?

I1 : What are these two groups of sepoys doing ?
2 : How are the lines in the group on the left ?
3 : Why do you say that the lines are regular ?
4 : What sort of lines are the sepoys in ?
5 : How are the lines in the group on the right ?
6 : Why do you say that the lines are not regular ?
7 : Are the sepoys in regular lines ?

Unit 61 : Is Chance Important ?

chance, relation, harmony



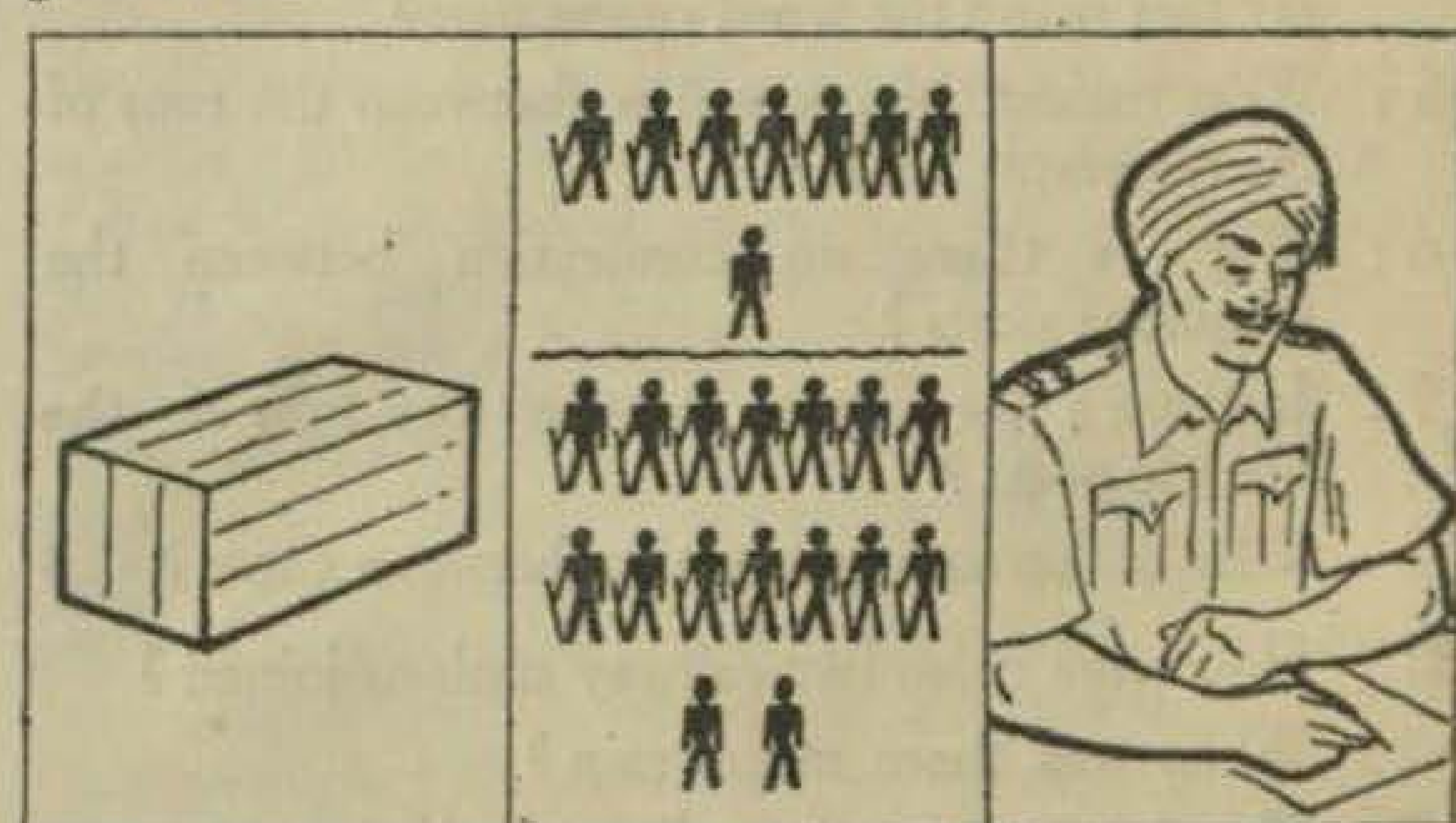
A. A man is stretched flat on the side-walk in front of a tall building. Take a good look at the man ; he is dead. What was the cause of his death ? This is how his death came about. A little boy was playing with a hammer on the third floor of the building. Suddenly the boy let the hammer go. At that very minute the man, who was on his way to his office, was right in front of the building. The hammer came down with great force on the man's head, and the blow was so violent that death took place then and there. Now who was responsible for the man's death ? The boy who was playing with the hammer ? No, he was not responsible for the man's death. He had no desire to put the man to death ; the hammer was not dropped with a purpose. In fact, no living being was responsible for the man's death. Chance was against the man. It was by chance that the hammer was dropped. It was by chance that the man was in that very place at that very minute. He came to his death by chance.

B. The sepoy at the back of the table is very happy. He is giving his friends a drink. What is the reason for this pleasure-making ? The sepoy had a ticket in the 'Goa lottery.' This morning he got the news that he had the right number on his ticket, and a 5000-rupee reward was coming to him. The 5000-rupee reward was not a payment for work which he had done. Chance was on his side, and so he got a reward without working for it.

C. Chance is seemingly responsible for a great number of events on this earth. For example, a worker in an office may be a very able man ; he may have long experience and much knowledge. But if chance is against him he may never get a better position or a higher salary in that office ; he may have to go to another. But though chance may seem to be against a man for a time it would be foolish on his part to give up his attempts to get a better position. Chance is an uncertain thing ; it may be against you today and with you tomorrow. A man may have ups and downs but in the end, if he has brains and industry, if he is hard-working and serious, he will get his reward as a rule.

D. But sometimes an able man has no way of making use of any of his qualities. If such a man does not get a chance whatever qualities he has will be wasted ; they will be of no use to anyone. That is why it is wise to give every man a chance to see what he is able to do. A great number of men do not get a chance at all, but this young soldier, who was made an N.C.O. only a short time back, has been given a chance to make clear what he is able to do. His section havildar has been promoted, and this young soldier has now been put in control of the section. The officer is saying to him, "Here is your chance, Ram Gopal. I am going to give you a very important bit of work, for which certain qualities are needed. If you have the necessary qualities you will be able to do the work and you will get the approval of the higher authorities."

E. The regimental sports are to take place on Sunday ; there will be a number of events like the 100-yards race, the one-mile race, the high jump, long jump and swimming. Khan, who is going to take part in the 100-yards race, one mile race and the long jump competition, is talking to his friend Karim about the regimental sports. He is quite serious about the competitions, but what are his chances of coming first in any of the events ? What are his chances of coming first in the 100-yards race ? He has no chance of coming first in the 100-yards race. There is no hope at all because there are at least four other sepoys who are quicker than he is. What are his chances of coming first in the one-mile race ? His chances of coming first in the one-mile race are not very good, because there are at least two other sepoys who are quicker than he is. What are his chances of coming first in the long jump competition ? He has a good chance of coming first in the long jump competition, though it is not certain that he will come first because there is at least one other sepoy whose jumping is as good as his.



F. Here is a box of wood. It is two feet long, one foot wide and one foot high. That is the size of the box. The weight of the box is five pounds. If the size of the box was greater there would be an increase in its weight. If the box was smaller its weight would be less. There is a relation between the size of the box and its weight. The greater the size of the box the greater the weight ; the smaller the size of the box

the smaller the weight. There is a relation between the size of the box and its weight, but there is no relation between the colour of the box and its weight. The colour might be white or green or brown or yellow, but the weight would still be the same.

G. There is a relation between the number of sepoys in a unit and the number of officers in that unit. The greater the number of sepoys the greater the number of officers ; the smaller the number of sepoys the smaller the number of officers. There is a relation between the number of soldiers in a unit and the number of guns in that unit. The greater the number of soldiers the greater the number of guns ; the smaller the number of soldiers the smaller the number of guns.

H. When two men are good friends, when there is no trouble between them, we say that the relations between the two men are very good. If there is trouble between the two men and they are not good friends we say that the relations between them are bad. Care is taken to see that the relations between men and officers or between men of different religions in an army are very good.

I. This officer is writing a letter to his father. He sends letters regularly not only to his father and mother but to a number of other relations like his father's brother, his mother's sister, his father's brother's son, and his mother's sister's daughter. There has never been any trouble between this officer and his relations ; they have all been very good friends. There has been complete agreement between him and his relations. They have all been living together in complete harmony with one another.

A1 : What position is this man in ?
2 : Is he dead or is he living ?
3 : Where was the little boy playing ? What was he playing with ?
4 : What did the boy do suddenly ?
5 : Where was the man at that very minute ?
6 : Where was the man going ?
7 : Where did the hammer come down ?
8 : Was the blow very violent ?
9 : Why do we say that the boy was not responsible for the man's death ?
10 : Was any living being responsible for the man's death ?
11 : What was against the man ?
12 : Was the hammer dropped with a purpose ?
13 : How do we say that the man came to his death ?
14 : Why do we say that he came to his death by chance ?

B1 : What is this sepoy giving his friends ?
2 : What ticket did he have ?
3 : What news did he get this morning ?
4 : Was the reward a payment for work which he had done ?
5 : Why did he get a reward without working for it then ?

C1 : What is seemingly responsible for a great number of events on this earth ?
2 : Why may an able man in an office never get a better position or a higher salary ?
3 : Would it be wise on his part to give up his attempts to get a better position, though chance may seem to be against him ? Why not ?
4 : What sort of man will get his reward in the end as a rule ?

D1 : Why is it wise to give an able man a chance to see what he is able to do ?
2 : Does every man in the Army get a chance ?
3 : How has this young soldier been given a chance to make clear what he is able to do ?
4 : What is the officer saying to him ?

E1 : When are the regimental sports to take place ?
2 : What different events will there be ?
3 : In what events is Khan going to take part ?
4 : What is he talking to Karim about ?
5 : What are his chances of coming first in the 100-yards race ?
6 : Why do you say that he has no chance of coming first ?
7 : What are his chances of coming first in the one-mile race ?
10 : Why do you say that his chances of coming first in the one-mile race are not very good ?
11 : What are his chances of coming first in the long jump competition ?
12 : He has a good chance of coming first but it is not certain that he will. Why ?

F1 : What is this box made of ?
2 : What is the size (weight) of the box ?
3 : Why do we say that there is a relation between the size of a box and its weight ?
4 : Is there a relation between the colour of a box and its weight ?
5 : Why do you say that there is no relation between the colour of a box and its weight ?

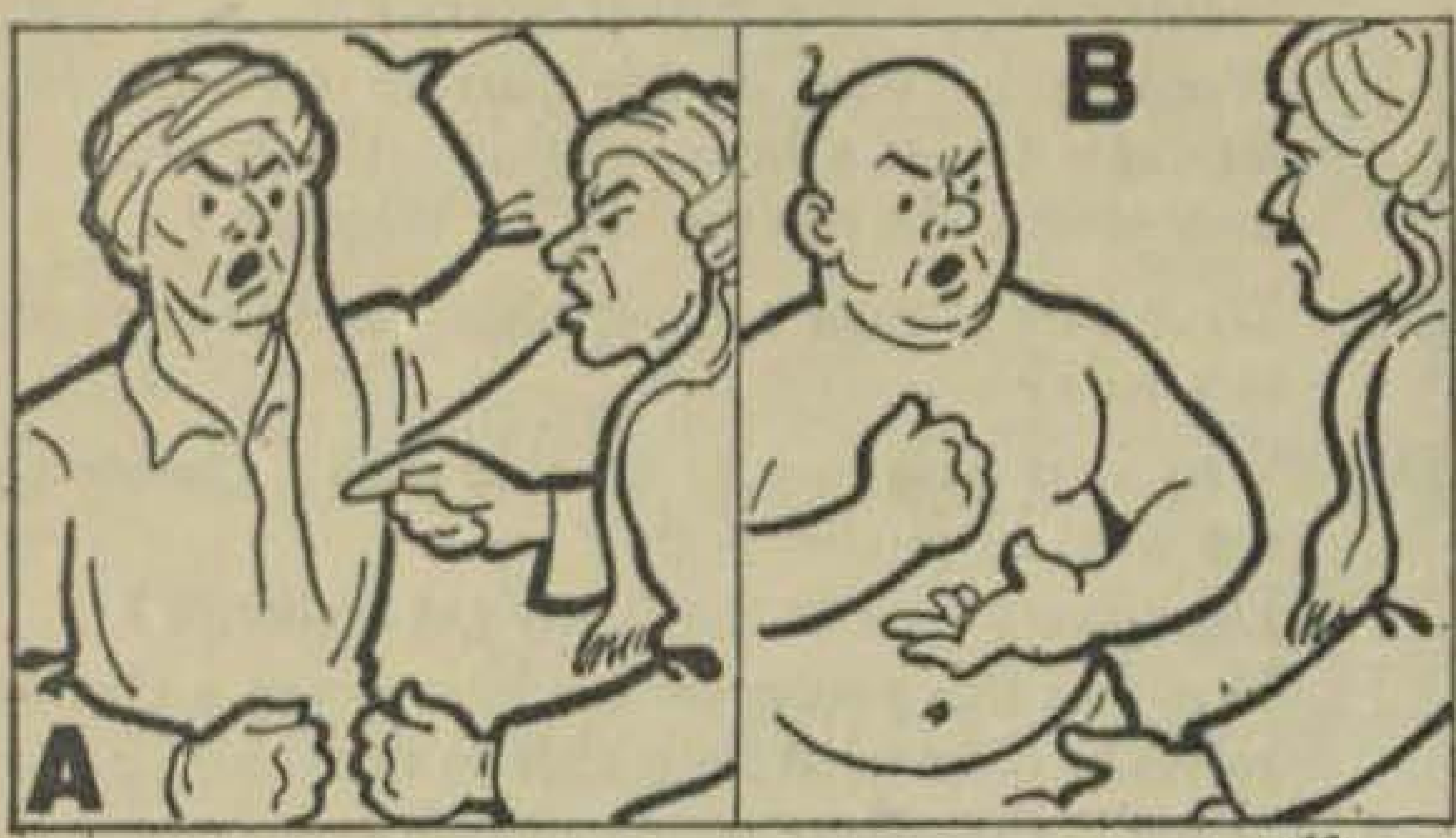
G1 : There is a relation between the number of sepoys in a unit and the number of officers. How ?
2 : There is a relation between the number of sepoys in a unit and the number of guns in it. How ?

H1 : When do we say that the relations between two men are good (bad) ?
2 : How are the relations between men and officers (between men of different religions) in the Army ?

I1 : To whom is this officer writing a letter ?
2 : To what relations does he regularly send letters ?
3 : Has there ever been trouble between this officer and his relations ?
4 : How have they been living with one another ?

Unit 62 : What is the Law?

law, judge, theory, crime



62

A. Murli and Bhadri are two farmers who have been farming their lands together for five years. They are married and have a number of boys and girls. For five years the two families were living in complete harmony with one another, but of late there has been trouble between the two men. The relations between them became worse and worse, and now there is an open fight between the two over the division of their property. Agreement is not possible. Who is to say how the division is to be made ? There is the law. What does the law say on the question ? Murli and Bhadri will go to a 'court' where the judge, after hearing the arguments of the two *vakils*, who have an expert knowledge of the law, will give a decision.

B. The village bania is having a violent argument with a farmer. The farmer has taken money from the bania and is in the bania's debt. The rate of interest is so high, and the times are so bad, that the farmer has not been able to give back even a part of the money. He is now making a strong request to the bania for more time. He says that there has been very much more produce this year than last year, and because the price of grain is high the farmer has hopes of making a great amount of money. But the bania is not moved ; he says that he will not give him any more time but will take over a part of the farmer's property right away. Has a creditor the right to take over a debtor's property because the debtor is unable to give back the money on the day fixed for the payment of the debt ? Who is to say if he has the right ? There is the law. The law will say if he has the right. The bania and the farmer will go to a 'court' where the judge will give a decision.

C. Whenever there is an argument between two men over a question like the right to property or the division of money or the payment of a debt or the use of the village common and agreement on the question is not possible they go to law. But in India there is a tendency for men to go to law even on very small questions. This is a very bad tendency because frequently going to law is more of a trouble than a help. One has to go to the court every other day ; one has to get together one's supporters and take them to the court ; one has to give the *vakil* a great amount of money as payment for his work. Money is wasted, time is wasted, and the law 'suit', as the law process is sometimes named, goes on for such a long time that in the end one is certain to have regrets that one went to law at all. If ever there is trouble between you and any other man make a serious attempt to come to an agreement before going to law about it.



62

D. Here is another dead man on the side-walk. No-one has any idea how his death took place. It is quite clear that he did not come to a violent death, because there are no marks or signs of blood on the man's body. A number of persons are looking on while the police are getting ready to take the body to the station. No-one has any idea who the man is or where he came from. No-one saw the man falling on the road ; his cries, if he gave any, came to no-one's ears. The cause of his death is a complete secret. But among the onlookers there is much talk about it. Everyone has a different theory about the cause of his death. One man's theory is that the man took poison. Another man's theory is that death was caused by poison gas. A third man's theory is that snake-bite was responsible for the man's death. The theory of a fourth man is that the dead man had more drink than was good for him, and that that was the cause of his death. These men may be right or they may be wrong.

E. When a serious crime takes place the police take the man who, they have reason to say, has been responsible for the crime to the police station. Then the police make a statement giving reasons for their belief. When the statement is ready they take the man before a judge and a 'jury'—twelve persons whose business it is to say if the man is responsible for the crime or not. After hearing the arguments of the police, as well as of the lawyer on the opposite side, the jury will give their decision. If, in the opinion of the jury, the man is not responsible for the crime the judge will let the man off and he will be free again. But if, in the opinion of the jury, the man is responsible for the crime the judge may send him to prison or say what other punishment is to be given to him.

F. If the crime is not very serious, the judge will

give a decision without the help of a jury, and the punishment may not be very hard. The man may have to make a small payment to the Government, a 'fine' as it is sometimes named. But if the crime is very serious, like causing someone's death, then the punishment may be death by hanging.

G. This is a view of a court-room. The judge is seated on a stage against the wall. The judge has a special sort of head-dress. In front of the judge are two clerks, who are taking down everything which is said by the vakils and the police. On the right is a structure made of wood, inside which the prisoner has been placed. This is the man, say the police, who is responsible for the death of the man on the side-walk. The argument of the police is that the prisoner put the man to death by giving him poison, with the purpose of getting his property. The lawyer (vakil) on the opposite side is putting the prisoner a number of questions. After answering these questions the prisoner will be questioned again by other lawyers. And so the argument will go on and on till the judge says that the jury are now in a position to give a decision.

A1 : What are Murli and Bhadri ?
2 : How long have they been farming their lands together ?
3 : How long have they been living in complete harmony with one another ?
4 : Have they been living together in complete harmony of late ?
5 : What was the outcome of the trouble ?
6 : What is the fight (argument) about ?
7 : Is agreement possible ?
8 : Who is to say how the division is to be made ?
9 : Where will Murli and Bhadri go now ?
10 : Who will give the decision at the court ?
11 : Who will put forward the arguments ?
12 : Why will Murli and Bhadri get the help of *vakils* ?

B1 : With whom is the village bania having a violent argument ?
2 : What has the farmer taken from the bania ?
3 : Why is the farmer unable to give back even a part of the money which he has taken ?
4 : What is he now making a request for ?
5 : How is the produce this year ?
6 : Why has the farmer hopes of making a great amount of money ?
7 : What does the bania say ?
8 : Who is to say if a creditor has the right to take away a part of the debtor's property ?
9 : Where will the bania and the farmer go ?
10 : Who will give the decision ?

C1 : What do two persons do when there is an argument over a question like the right to property (division of money, payment of a debt, use of the village common) and agreement on the question is not possible ?
2 : What is the general tendency in India ?
3 : Why is this a bad tendency ?
4 : Why is it said that going to law is frequently more of a trouble than a help ?
5 : How long does a law suit go on sometimes ?
6 : If ever there is trouble between you and some other man what will you do ?

D1 : Where is the body of this man ?
2 : How did his death take place ?
3 : Why is it clear that he did not come to a violent death ?
4 : Where are the police getting ready to take the body ?
5 : Who is the man and where did he come from ?
6 : Did anyone see the man falling on the road ?
7 : What was the cause of his death ?
8 : Every onlooker has a different theory about it. What is one (another, a third, a fourth) man's theory ?

E1 : When a serious crime takes place what do the police do ?
2 : What do they do after taking the man to the police station ?
3 : Where do they take him when the statement is ready ?
4 : When do the jury give their decision ?
5 : If in the opinion of the jury the man is responsible (not responsible) for the crime what will the judge do ?

F1 : When does the judge give a decision without the help of a jury ?
2 : What sort of punishment may the man get ?
3 : What may be the punishment if the crime is a very serious one, like causing someone's death ?

G1 : What is this a view of ?
2 : Where is the judge seated ?
3 : Who is in front of the judge ?
4 : What are the clerks doing ?
5 : Where has the prisoner been placed ?
6 : What is this man said to have done ?
7 : What is the argument of the police ?
8 : What was the prisoner's purpose in putting the man to death ?
9 : What is the lawyer doing ?
10 : Will these be the only questions ?
11 : How long will the argument go on ?

Unit 63 : Respect for Education

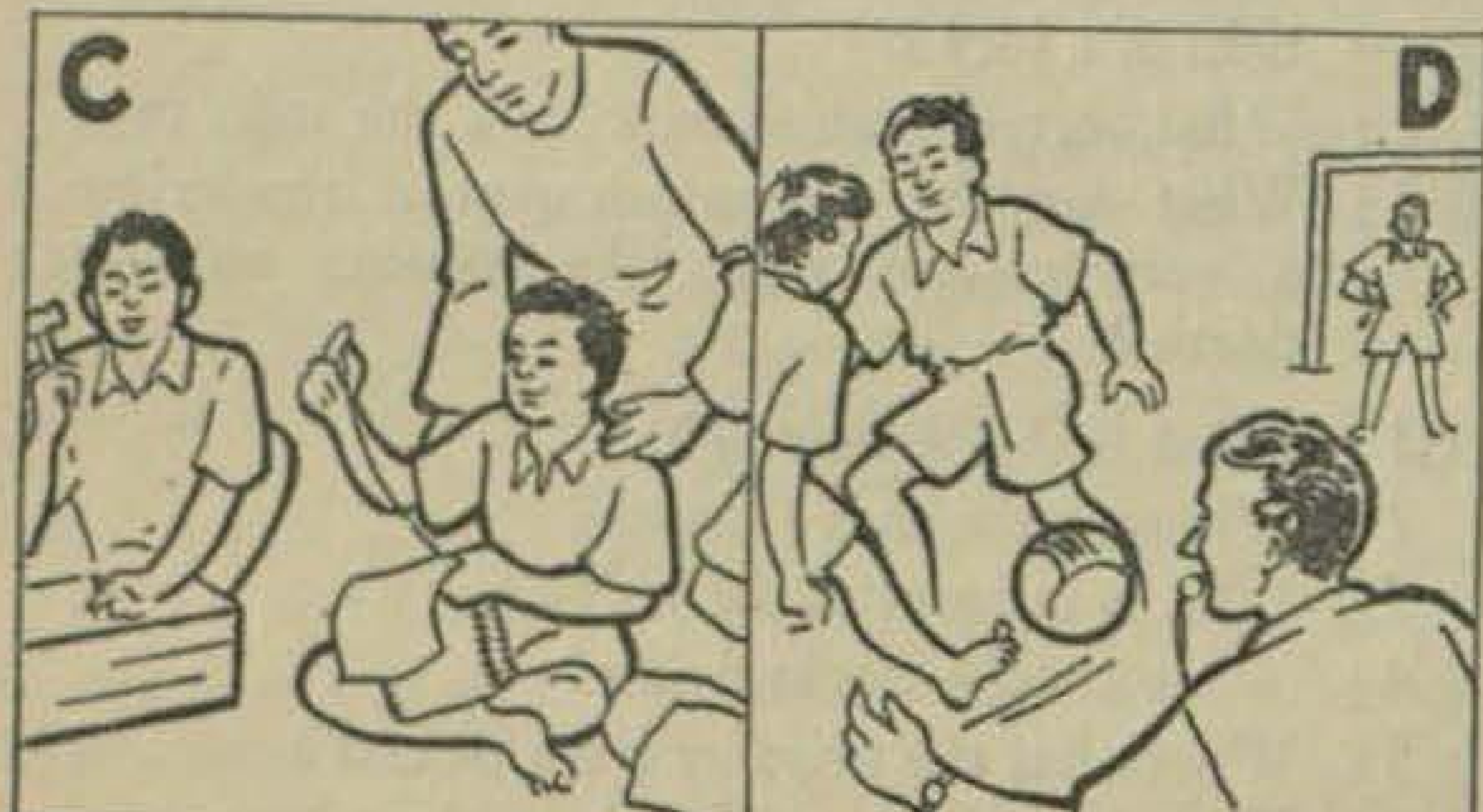
education, respect



63

A. This is a room in a school. The teacher is teaching the boys writing. After teaching writing for some time he will give the boys some teaching in reading and arithmetic. The boys come to school every day to get a good knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, history and science. The boys come to school for an education. It is the teacher's business to give the boys an education. In a great number of villages in India there are no good schools. That is why some of the villagers send their boys to the nearest town for their education.

B. This is another room in the school. What is the teacher doing here ? He is not teaching the learners reading, writing or 'arithmetic'; he is not giving them a knowledge of history or science. He is teaching them how to keep their bodies clean, and why it is so important to do so. The teacher is giving the boys an education in clean and healthy living. A knowledge of clean and healthy living is as much a part of one's education as a knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic.



63

C. This is still another room in the school. What is the teacher doing here ? He is not teaching the boys reading, writing or arithmetic. He is not teaching them the rules of clean and healthy living. He is giving them a training in a trade. One boy is making a box ; another boy is making a leather bag. In another part of the room a third is making a pot ; a fourth boy is making yarn from cotton. A knowledge of some trade or other is as much a part of education as a knowledge of reading, writing or arithmetic.

D. The boys are playing football in this field in front of the school, and the teacher is guiding them in their play. Sunlight and games in the open air are necessary for healthy living. The body has to be trained as well as the mind. Training the body is as much a part of education as training the mind. That is why a school has to give equal attention to work and play.

You now have a good idea of what education is and what it does. Education gives us knowledge ; it gives us teaching in clean and healthy living ; and it gives a training in some trade or other. The purpose of education is a healthy mind in a healthy body.

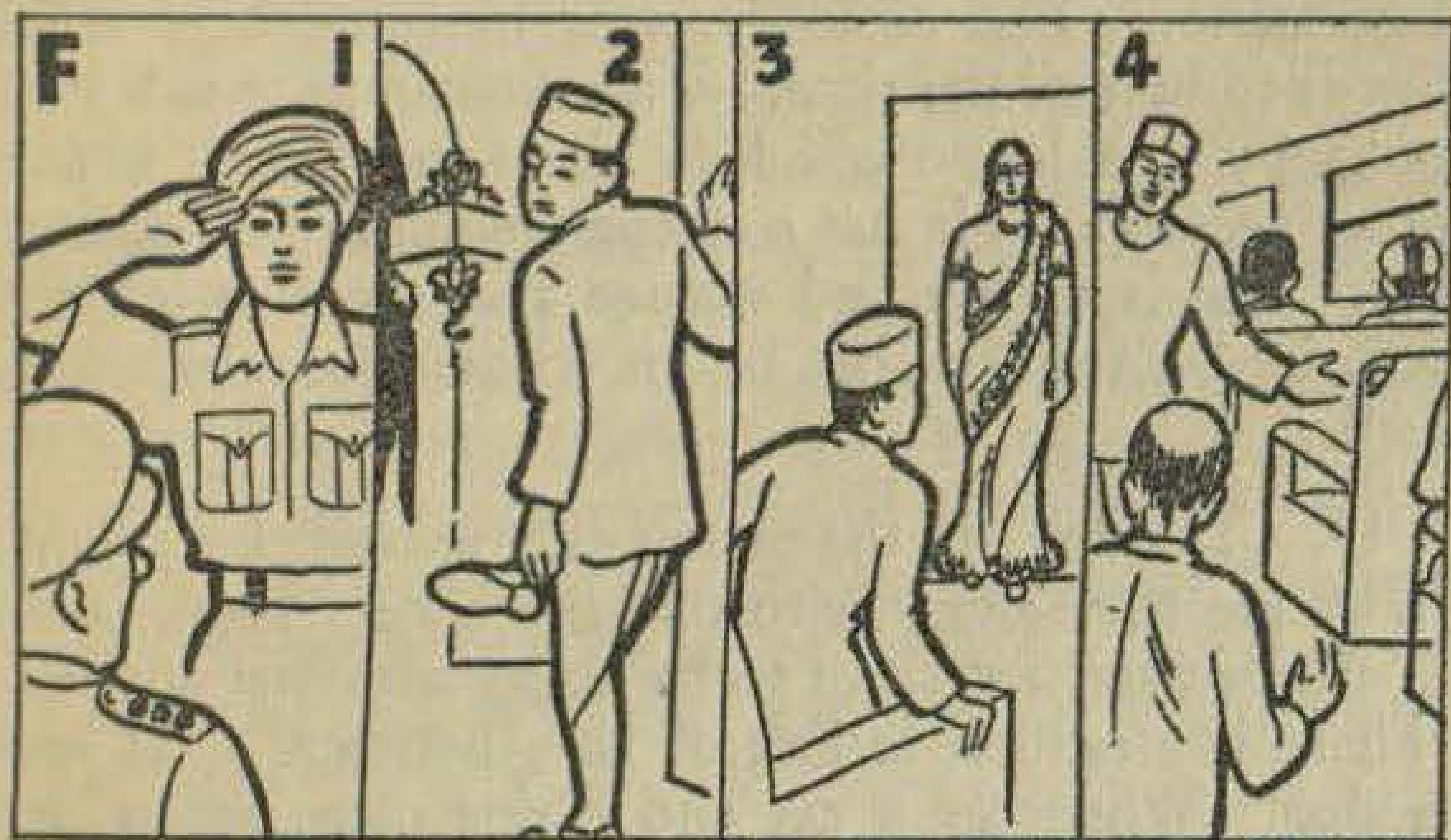


63

E. Up to this point we have been talking about the education of boys. But the education of our girls is even more necessary than the education of our boys, because the sort of work which women do is more important than the sort of work which men do. Our women are responsible for our homes ; it is they who have to keep our houses clean and make them beautiful. It is they who are responsible for the training of our boys and girls when they are very young. As house-keepers and mothers they do very important work. To be able to do their work well they have to have an education. But it will be a different sort of education from the one which we give our boys. In addition to reading, writing and arithmetic our girls will have to be given a training in cooking, a knowledge of food values, a knowledge of stitching, of how to make a shirt or a coat, or how to get a hole in a coat or a shirt stitched up. They will have to be given a knowledge of the causes of some of the common diseases and of how to keep them away. And, last and most important of all, they will have to be trained to take care of their boys and girls, specially when they are very young. To make our women good house-keepers and good mothers an education is necessary.

F. We generally have a higher opinion of a woman who has an education than of a woman who has no education. Another way of saying this is that we have

a greater respect for women who have an education than for women who have no education. We have a great respect for education itself. We have a great respect for money. And we have a great respect for rank. When a sepoy comes across an officer he gives his officer a salute. A salute is a sign of respect. Before



63

going into a temple or a mosque you take off your shoes. Taking off your shoes before going in is a sign of respect. If you are seated when a woman comes in you get up. Your getting up is a sign of respect to the woman. When you see that there is an old man without a seat in a bus or a tram you give up your seat to him. This is a sign of respect to the old man.

G. In India the sort of men who are most highly respected are men of religion. Men of religion are looked up to more than any other group of men in India. But it is different in other countries. In China the men who are most highly respected are men of learning. In Germany military men were the ones who were most respected. In France writers are more respected than any other group of men. And in America it is the businessmen.

A1 : What is this place ?
2 : What is the teacher teaching the boys ?
3 : What will he give the boys a teaching in later ?
4 : Why do the boys come to school every day ?
5 : What is a shorter way of saying this ?
6 : Whose business is it to give the boys an education ?
7 : Why do some of the villagers send their boys to the nearest town for their education ?

B1 : What is this place ?
2 : What is the teacher doing here ?
3 : What is the teacher giving the boys an education in ?
4 : What is as much a part of one's education as a knowledge of reading, writing and arithmetic ?

C1 : What is the teacher doing here ?
2 : What is one (another, a third, a fourth) boy doing ?
3 : What is as much a part of education as reading, writing and arithmetic ?

D1 : What game are the boys playing ?
2 : What is the teacher doing ?
3 : Why are sunlight and open air necessary ?
4 : What has to be trained as well as the mind ?
5 : Why has a school to give equal attention to work and play ?
6 : What does education do for us ?
7 : What is the purpose of education ?

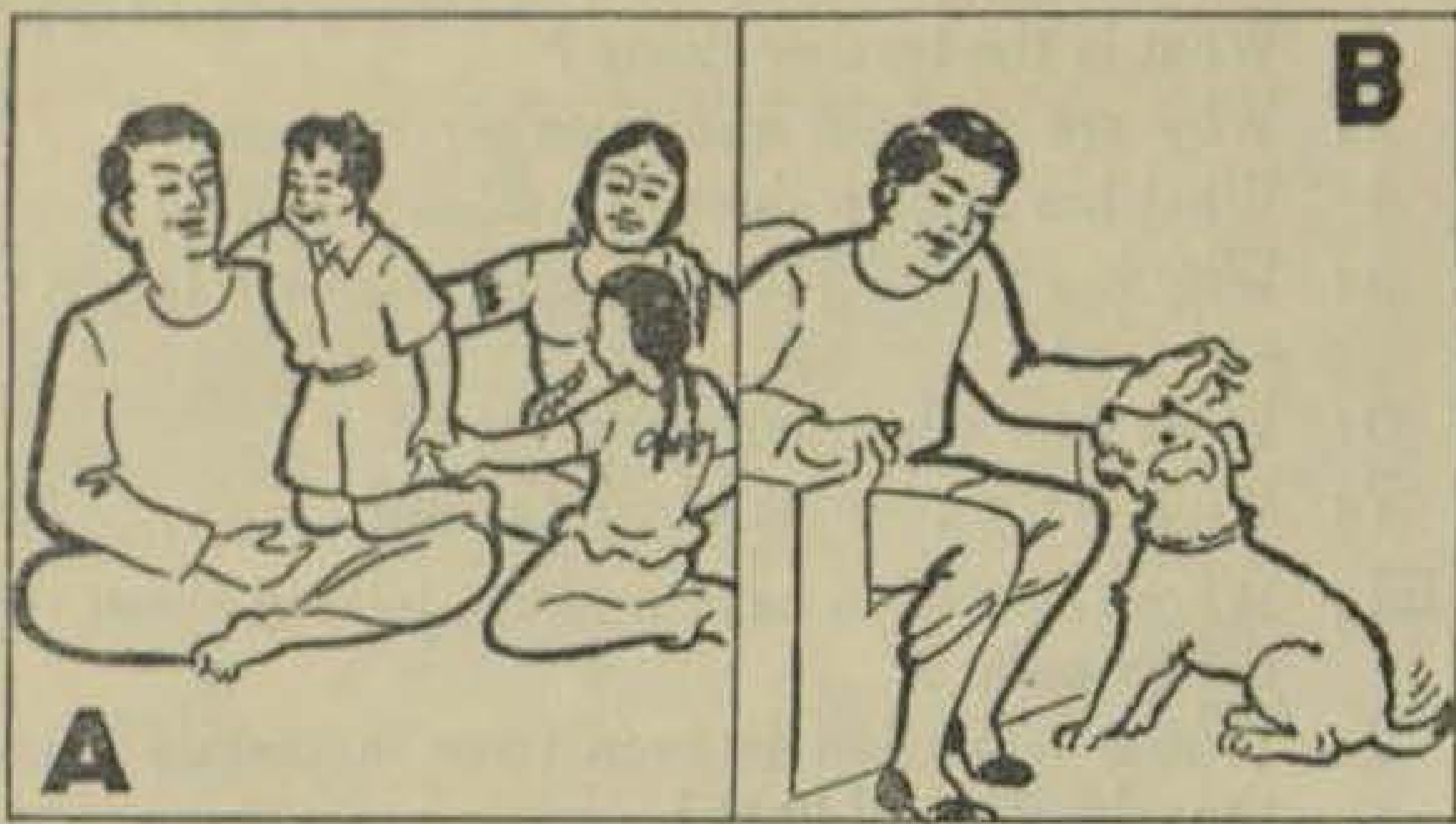
E1 : Whose education have we been talking about up to this point ?
2 : Whose education is even more necessary than the education of boys ?
3 : Why is the education of our girls even more necessary than the education of our boys ?
4 : What are our women responsible for ?
5 : Why do you say that they are responsible for our homes ?
6 : Who is responsible for the training of our boys and girls when they are very young ?
7 : What have they to have to be able to do their work well ?
8 : Will it be the same sort of education as the one which we give our boys ?
9 : How will it be different ?
10 : What have the women to be trained to do ?
11 : What is necessary to make our women good mothers and housekeepers ?

F1 : Of whom have we a higher opinion—of a woman who has had an education or a woman who has had no education ?
2 : What is another way of saying this ?
3 : What is one (another, a third) thing for which we have a great respect ?
4 : What does a sepoy do when he comes across an officer ?
5 : What is a salute a sign of ?
6 : What do you do before going into a temple or a mosque ?
7 : What is taking off your shoes a sign of ?
8 : What do you do when a woman comes in ?
9 : What is your getting up a sign of ?
10 : What do you do when you see that there is an old man in a bus without a seat ?
11 : What is this a sign of ?

G1 : What sort of men are most highly respected in India ?
2 : Why do you say that they are more highly respected than any other group of men ?
3 : Who are (were) most highly respected in China (Germany, France, America) ?

Unit 64 : Love And Hate

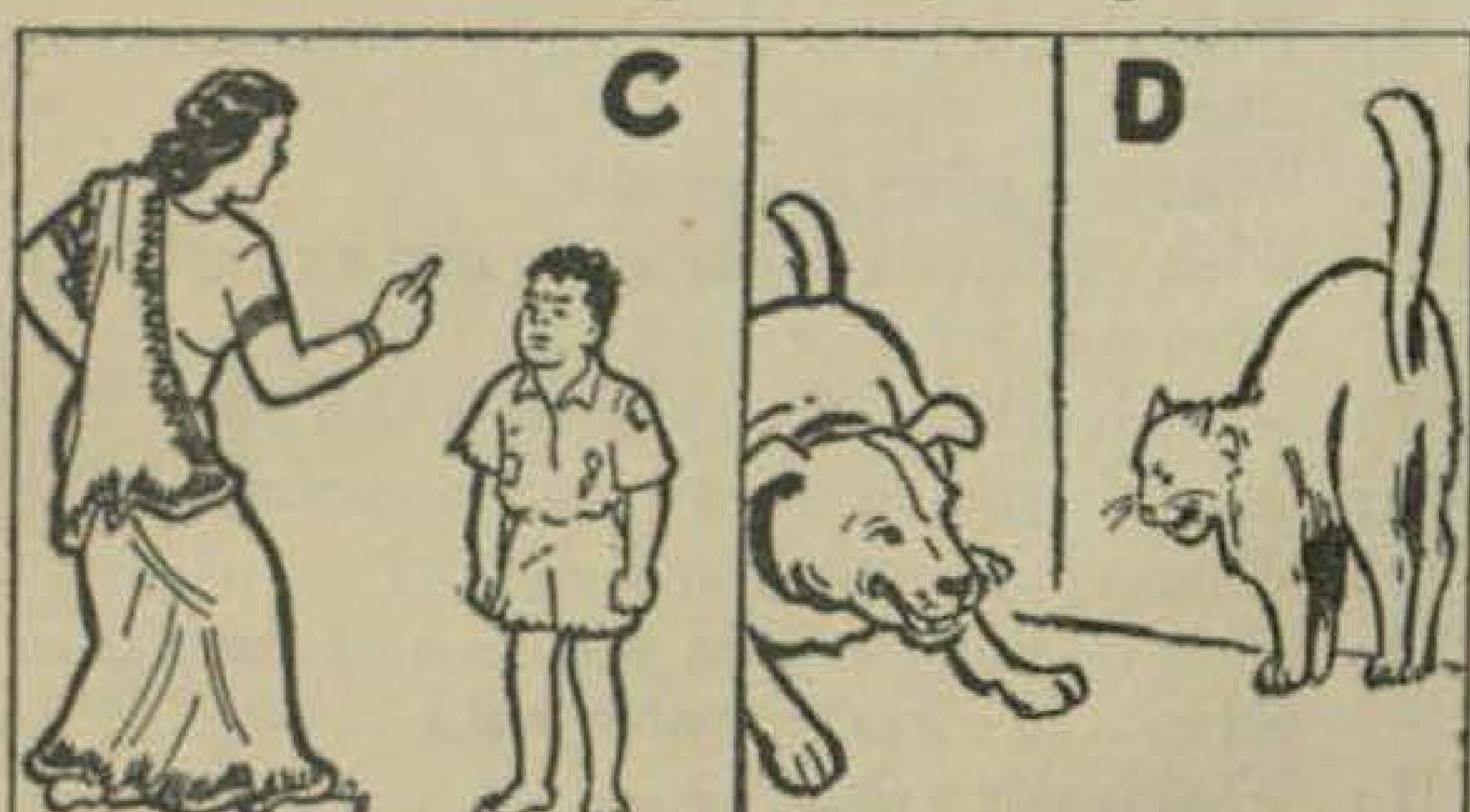
love, hate



64

A. We have seen that respect is a sort of feeling which we have for a man of high birth or a man of high rank or for a man who has learning or much money. Here we will be talking about a different sort of feeling—the sort of feeling which a father and a mother have for their boys and girls. There is a special name for this sort of feeling—love. A father and mother will have love for their sons and daughters. And the sons and daughters in their turn will have love for their father and mother. Sometimes a father and mother will have more than normal love for their sons and daughters. Then we say that they are a very loving father and mother. In the same way when the sons and daughters have more than normal love for their father and mother we say that they are very loving sons and daughters.

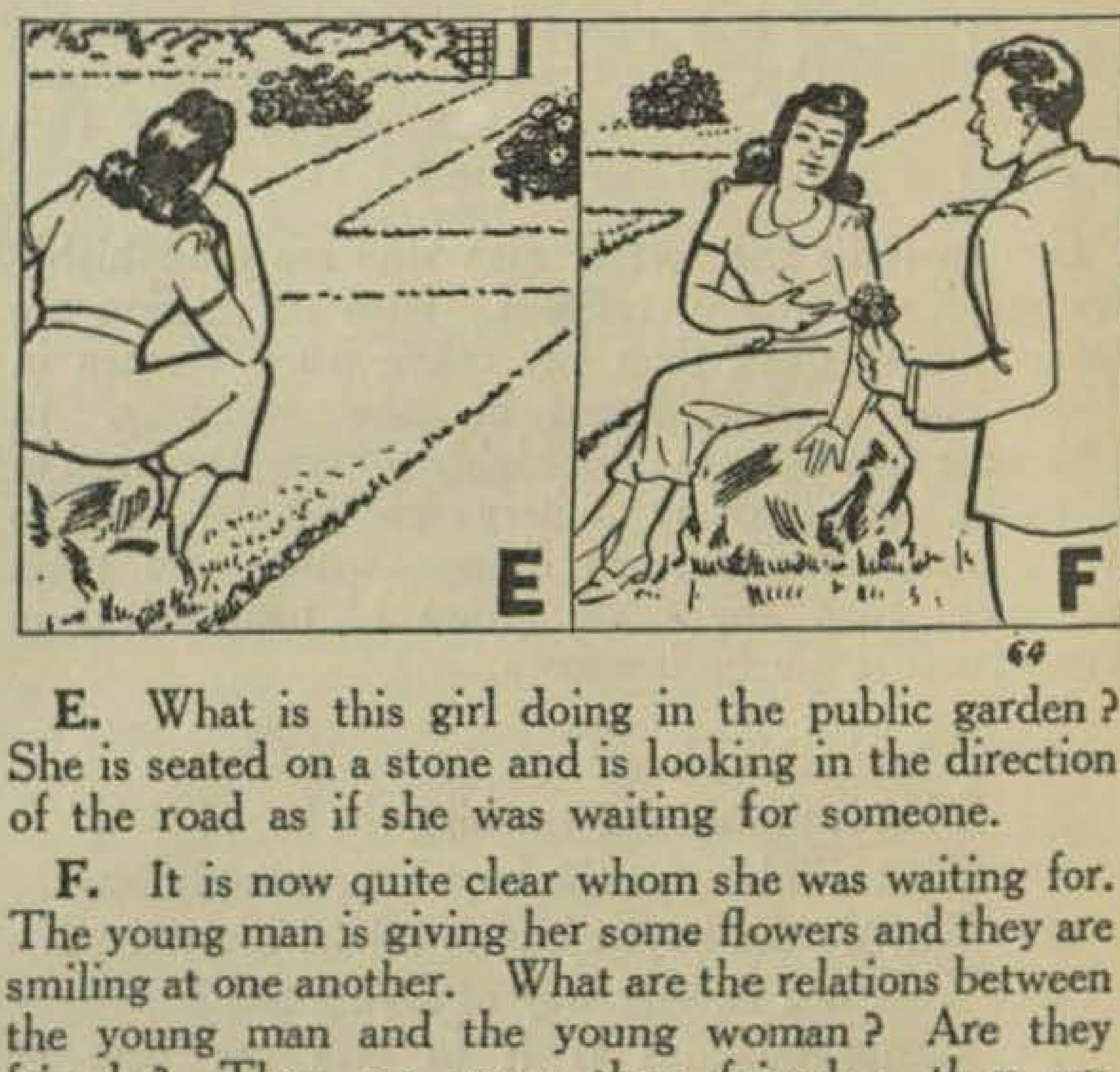
B. There may be a feeling of love not only between one person and another but between a man and an animal as well. The man in the picture has had this dog for a number of years. All the time he has been good and kind to it. That is why the dog has a great love for its owner. Dogs are very loving animals.



64

C. When someone is good and kind to us we generally have a strong feeling of love for him. But what sort of feeling do we have for a person who has been very bad and cruel to us ? For such a person we will have a feeling which is the opposite of love—hate. We will have a strong feeling of hate against such a person. It is quite clear from the boy's face in the picture that he has a feeling of hate for the woman who is talking to him. His mother is dead and his father got married a second time. The woman who is talking to him is his step-mother. She never gives him good food or good clothing. She never gives him any money. She is angry with him and says cruel words to him all the time. This woman has made him unhappy in a house which is his as much as it is any other person's. He has a strong feeling of hate against her. She is such a bad woman that she is hated not only by her step-son but by his friends and relations as well.

D. The dog and the cat are getting ready for a fight. Why are they angry with one another ? There is no special reason for them to be angry with one another. There is a natural feeling of hate between a cat and a dog. Whenever a cat and a dog come across one another there is generally a fight. There is such a strong feeling of hate between them that it is very uncommon for a cat and a dog to become friends, but they do sometimes.



64

E. What is this girl doing in the public garden ? She is seated on a stone and is looking in the direction of the road as if she was waiting for someone.

F. It is now quite clear whom she was waiting for. The young man is giving her some flowers and they are smiling at one another. What are the relations between the young man and the young woman ? Are they friends ? They are more than friends ; they are lovers. They are in love with one another. From the look on their faces they are very much in love with one another. What are the signs that they are in love with one another ? Some have seen them meeting one another regularly in the park ; others have seen them exchanging words and looks which are full of love ; still others have seen them walking hand in hand round the park or by the sea.

G. This sort of behaviour is new to this town, and quite a number of older persons are shocked by it. Have the young man and the young woman no sense of shame ? Has this behaviour the approval of their fathers and mothers ? What is common between the young man and the young woman, anyway ? He is a

Hindu; she is a Christian. He is the son of a great businessman; she is the daughter of a poor mechanic. What have the two in common? They have much in common—a love of sports, a love of reading and a love of music. The young man and the young woman take a great pleasure in playing games, in reading good books and hearing good music. In fact, it was at a music party that the two, by chance, came together.

H. What is wrong in that? say their young friends. There is nothing wrong in it, is the answer of those who are older and wiser, if the young man and the young woman are serious, that is to say, if they have an idea of getting married. But if they have no idea of getting married it will be different. They have no respect for the young man themselves, because they have seen him being in and out of love any number of times before. Take the example of poor Malati. There was a time when this young man was making love to her and she had great hopes that they would be married. But after a time he got tired of Malati and made love to Vimala. Malati's heart was broken and she came to a very sad end. But the young man was not in love with Vimala for very long. About three months later he was seen making love to Parvati . . . That is what the older men and the women of the town are saying among themselves.

A1: What is respect a sort of?
2: For whom do we have this feeling?
3: What name do we give to the sort of feeling which a father and mother have for their boys and girls?
4: What sort of feeling will a father and mother have for their sons and daughters?
5: What sort of feeling will sons and daughters have for their father and mother?
6: What do we say when a father and mother have more than normal love for their sons and daughters?
7: What do we say when sons and daughters have more than normal love for their father and mother?

B1: May there be a feeling of love between a man and an animal?
2: How long has the man in the picture had his dog?
3: Why has the dog a great love for its owner?
4: What sort of animals are dogs?

C1: When do we generally have a strong feeling of love for a man?
2: What sort of feeling do we have for a person who has been very bad and cruel to us?
3: What name do we give the feeling which is the opposite of love?
4: What sort of feeling has the boy in the picture for the woman to whom he is talking?
5: Is the woman a relation of his?
6: Why has he a strong feeling of hate against her?
7: Is the woman hated only by her step-son?

D1: What are the dog and the cat getting ready for?
2: Why are they angry with one another?
3: What sort of feeling is there between a cat and a dog?
4: Why do you say that there is a natural feeling of hate between a cat and a dog?
5: How strong is the feeling of hate between them?

E1: What is this place?
2: Where is the girl seated?
3: In what direction is she looking?
4: Why is she looking in the direction of the road?

F1: For whom was she waiting?
2: What is the young man giving her?
3: What are the relations between the young man and the woman?
4: Yes, they are lovers. What is another way of saying this?
5: What are you able to see from the look on their faces?
6: Where have they been meeting one another regularly?
7: What sort of words and looks have they been exchanging?
8: Where have they been walking hand in hand?
9: What are all these signs of?

G1: Why are quite a number of older persons shocked by this behaviour?
2: What sort of questions are the older persons putting themselves?
3: What is the boy's (girl's) religion?
4: What is the boy's (girl's) father?
5: What have the boy and the girl in common?
6: What do they take a pleasure in?
7: Where did the two come together?

H1: What do their young friends say?
2: When is there nothing wrong in this?
3: When would this be wrong?
4: Why have the older persons no respect for the young man?
5: What was the name of his first sweetheart?
6: Why do you say that he and Malati were sweethearts?
7: What hopes did Malati have?
8: To whom did he make love after a time?
9: What was the effect of this on Malati?
10: To whom was he making love three months later?

Unit 65 : The Work Of Government

government, political, tax



65

Q : Who makes our laws ?
A : The Government.
Q : Who sees that there is peace and order in the country ?
A : The Government.
Q : Who makes war and who makes peace ?
A : The Government.
Q : Whose work is building roads, bridges and drains ?
A : It is the work of the Government.
Q : Whose work is opening schools and giving free education to the poor ?
A : It is the work of the Government.
Q : By whom are hospitals generally started ?
A : By the Government.
Q : By whom are trade agreements with other countries made ?
A : By the Government.
Q : What sort of business, in short, does the Government of a country do ?
A : It does the political business of the country.
Q : Is looking after a store political business ?
A : No, looking after a store is not political business.
Q : Is taking care of a house political business ?
A : No, taking care of a house is not political business.
Q : What is political business then ?
A : I have given you some examples of political business. Making laws is political business. Making trade agreements with other countries is political business. Keeping the peace in the country is political business.
Q : What is the Government then ?
A : It is a group of men who take care of the country's political business.
Q : What sort of men are they ?
A : They are very wise men, men of great learning and knowledge. They are men who have done this sort of work for a very long time ; they are men of political experience and political knowledge.
Q : If the Government has to do such a great amount of work it has to have a great organization.
A : Yes, the Government has a great organization ; there are thousands of Government servants, like sub-divisional officers, magistrates, tahsildars, police inspectors, chowkidars, and so on.
Q : You said that the Government makes roads, bridges, and drains ; that it sees that there is law and order in the country ; that it gives free education to the poor. Isn't much money necessary for doing all this work, specially for supporting an army, a navy and an air force ?
A : Yes, much money is necessary for doing all this work.
Q : Where does the Government get the money from ?
A : From the country. Every person who has an income of some sort or other makes a payment to the Government.
Q : Is there a special name for this sort of payment ?
A : Yes, it is a tax.
Q : Give me some examples of different sorts of taxes.
A : There is a tax on matches ; there is a tax on salt ; there is a tax on the produce from the land ; there is a tax on income.
Q : By whom are the taxes fixed ?
A : By the Government.
Q : What is the effect of putting a tax on salt or sugar ?
A : If salt or sugar is taxed the price of salt or sugar goes up.
Q : Are we generally pleased at hearing that there is to be a new tax ?
A : There is no simple answer to that question.
Q : Why not ?
A : A smoker, for example, will not be pleased at hearing that there is to be a new tax on tobacco. But one who is not a smoker will not be greatly troubled. An unmarried person will not be pleased at hearing that the Government is going to put a tax on unmarried men, but a married man with a number of boys and girls will not be troubled in the least.
Q : Is it right or wrong to make a protest against taxes ?
A : It is wrong.
Q : Why is it wrong ?
A : Because if there are no taxes the Government will have no money for roads, bridges or drains, for schools or hospitals, and for the upkeep of an army, navy and air force. And what would be our condition if we had no roads in our villages, no lights on our roads, no bridges across our rivers, no schools or hospitals, and no army, navy or air force to keep our country safe from attack ?

Unit 66: What is a Nation?

nation, dependent

Q: What is England?

A: England is a country.

Q: Who are the English?

A: The English are a nation.

Q: What is France?

A: France is a country.

Q: Who are the French?

A: The French are a nation.

Q: What is China?

A: China is a country.

Q: Who are the Chinese?

A: The Chinese are a nation.

Q: Why do you say that the English are a nation?

A: I say that the English are a nation because Englishmen are a group by themselves, separate from other groups, with one government, a common language and a common history.

Q: Why do you say that the Chinese are a nation?

A: I say that the Chinese are a nation because, like Englishmen, they are a group by themselves, separate from other groups, with a common language and a common history.

Q: Are the Swiss a nation?

A: Yes, the Swiss are a nation.

Q: Have they a common language?

A: No, they haven't a common language; the language of some of them is Italian; the language of others is French; and the language of still others is German. Three languages are used—French, Italian and German.

Q: But if the Swiss have no common language why do you say that the Swiss are a nation?

A: Because a group of persons may be a nation without having a common language.

Q: Are the Americans a nation?

A: Yes, the Americans are a nation.

Q: Have they a common history?

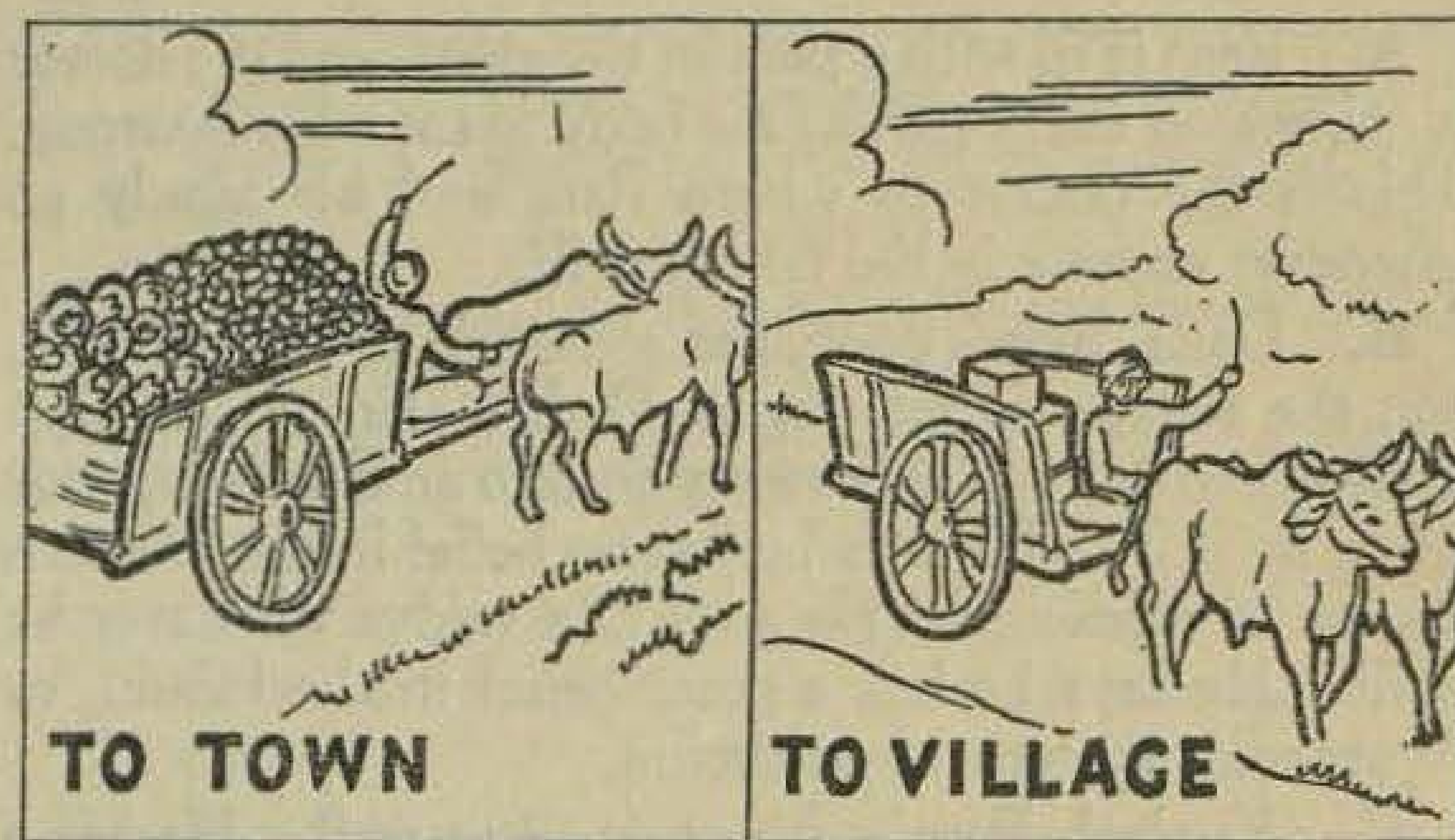
A: No, they haven't a common history; some Americans have come from England; others have come from Germany; still others have come from Poland and other countries.

Q: But if the Americans haven't a common history why do you say that they are a nation?

A: Because a group of persons may be a nation without having a common history.

Q: What is it then which makes a group of men a nation?

A: It is all a question of feeling. The English, for example, are a nation because all Englishmen have the feeling that they are separate from other nations like the French or Americans or Chinese. When a group of persons have the feeling that they are a nation, separate from all other nations, well, they are a nation. That's all there is to it.



66

A. In any one nation there are two chief groups of persons. There are the farmers, who have their homes in the villages, and there are the townsmen, who have their homes in the towns. The townsmen have to get their food grains from the countryside, because food grains are not produced in the town. Another way of saying this is that the town is dependent on the countryside for its food. The farmers in their turn have to get small goods, like hammers, nails, pencils, paper and so on, from the town. In other words the farmers are dependent on the town for small goods. In this way the two chief groups of persons in a nation are dependent on one another.

B. Sometimes one part of a country may be dependent on another for certain things. For example, Bombay Province is dependent on the Punjab for its wheat. And the Punjab is dependent on Bombay for its cotton goods. To give another example, Bombay is dependent for its coal on Behar, and Behar is dependent for its matches on Bombay.

C. Two different nations may be dependent on one another for their goods. For example, we in India are dependent on Burma for part of our rice and on Malay for all our rubber and tin. And for our machines we are dependent on America and England. To give another example, England is dependent on Canada and Australia for its food grains, on South America for its meat, and on India and Ceylon for its tea.

Unit 67 : The Development of Society

system, society, development



A. Ram is ill with a pain in the chest, and the doctor is going over every part of his body to see what is wrong. This is the doctor to whom Ram and his family go whenever anyone in the family is ill.

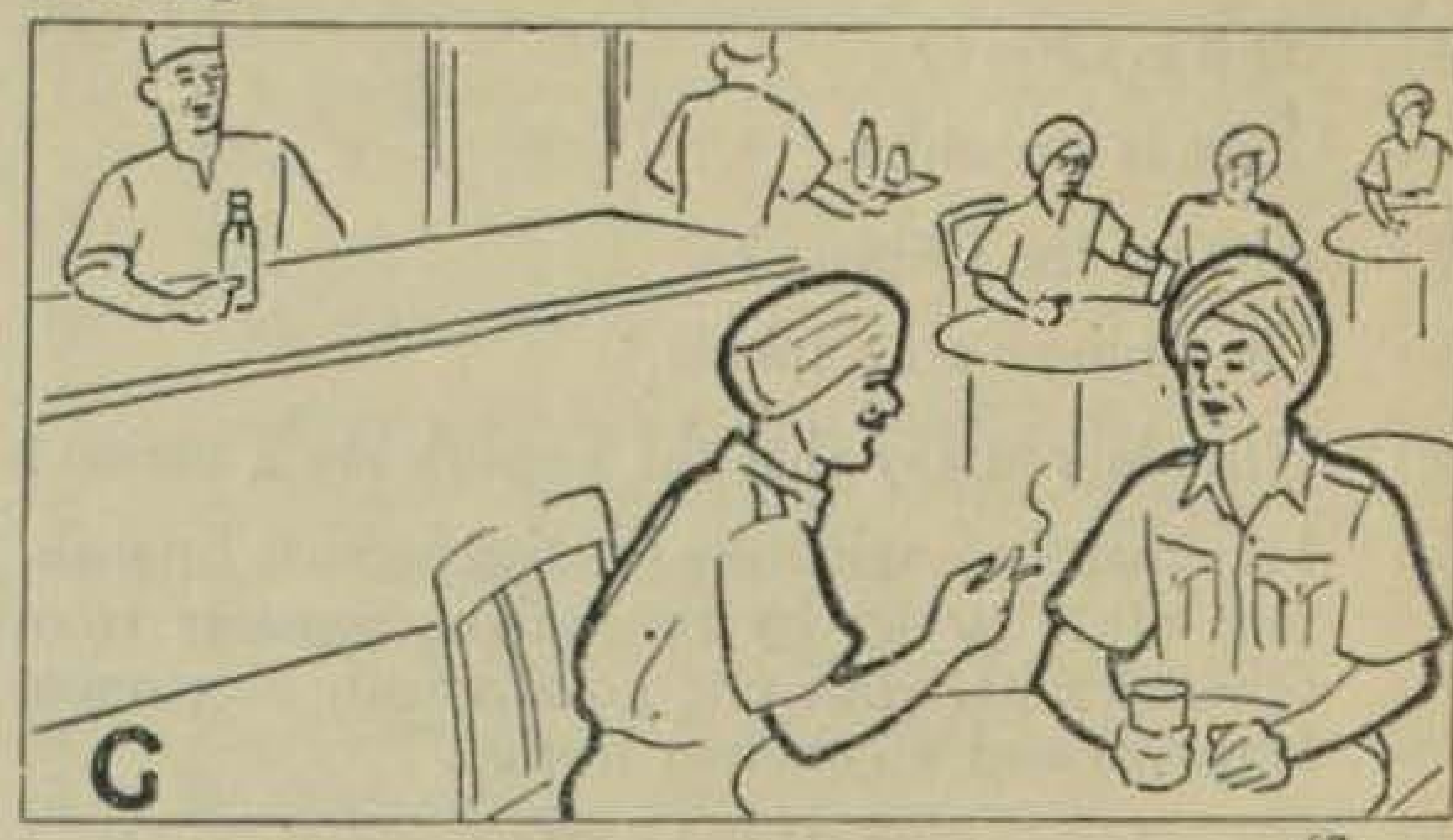
B. Dada, Ram's cook, has some sort of skin trouble, and the *vaidya* is looking at Dada's skin to see what is wrong with it. Dada never goes to an English doctor when he is ill. He says he has no belief in the Western system of medicine. He goes to a vaidya whenever he is ill. He says he has a great belief in the Hindu, or Ayurvedic, system of medicine.

C. Khaleel, Ram's driver, is ill as well. He has a bad pain in the stomach. Something is wrong with his digestion. The *hakim* is noting the beats of Khaleel's heart, to see what is wrong with Khaleel's digestion. Khaleel never goes to an English doctor or a Hindu vaidya. He says he has no belief in the Western system of medicine or the Hindu system of medicine. He goes to a hakim whenever he is ill. He says he has a great belief in the Muslim, or Unani, system of medicine.

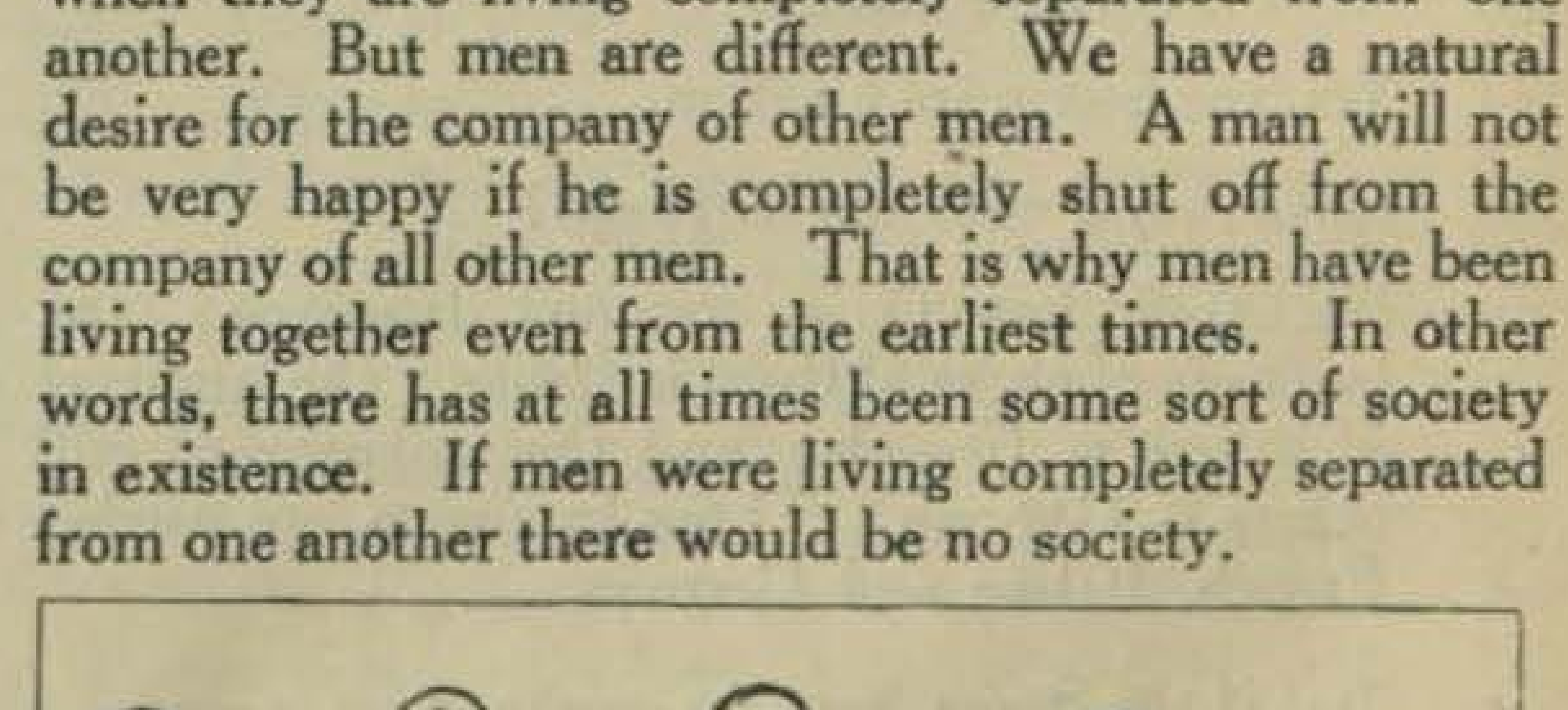
D. These three systems of medicine, the Western system, the Ayurvedic system and the Unani system, are all quite different. Everything about them is different. Their theories about the causes of disease are different ; the sort of medicines which they give are different ; the materials from which they make their medicines are different. The Western, the Ayurvedic and the Unani are three separate systems of medicine. In Europe and America the only system of medicine which is in use is the Western system of medicine. But in India, specially in the countryside, the Ayurvedic and the Unani systems are in much wider use than the Western system.

E. One country may have a different system of medicine from another. It may have a different system of farming as well. For example, our way of farming in India is different from the American way of farming. The two systems are different. The way the land is ploughed, the way the seeds are put in, the way the plants are cut and the way the grain is stored are all different. In addition they make use of machines in America for all farming operations, but we in this country are dependent on men and animals for all the work. In other words, the system of farming in America is completely different from the system of farming in India.

F. Not only the system of farming, but the system of living itself may be different. For example, our system of living is different from the American system of living. The sort of food which we have, the sort of dress which we put on, the sort of amusements we take pleasure in are all different. The relations between father and son, between mother and daughter, between man and woman, are different. Our beliefs about religion are different. In other words, our system of living is completely different from the American system of living.

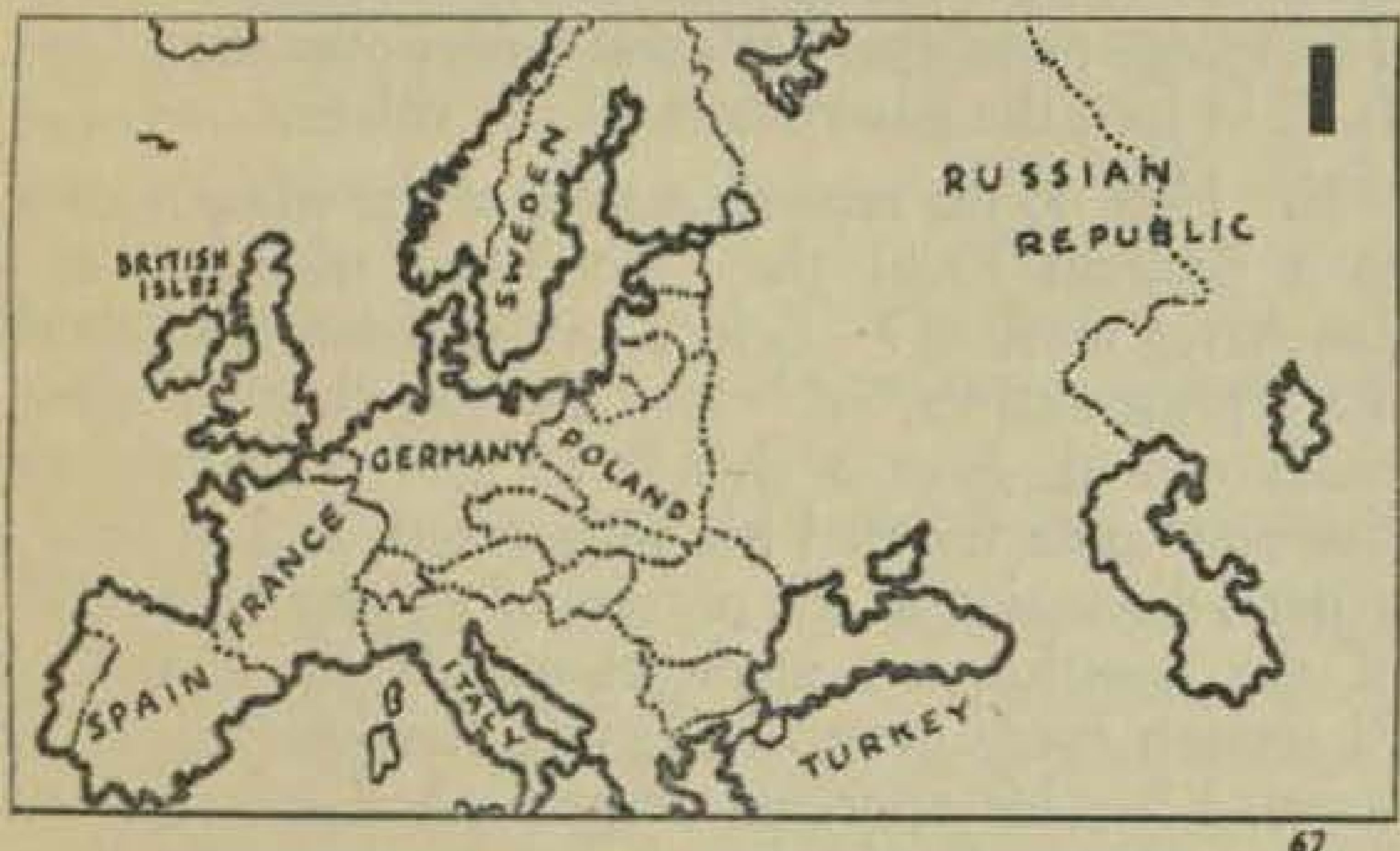


G. All men have a desire for the company of one another. This is one way in which we are different from animals. One dog has no desire for the company of another dog. One cow has no desire for the company of another cow. Dogs and cows are quite happy even when they are living completely separated from one another. But men are different. We have a natural desire for the company of other men. A man will not be very happy if he is completely shut off from the company of all other men. That is why men have been living together even from the earliest times. In other words, there has at all times been some sort of society in existence. If men were living completely separated from one another there would be no society.



H. When men come together for any special purpose a society is formed. We have societies of workers, the

business of which is to keep a watch over the interests of the workers. We have farmers' societies, the business of which is to keep a watch over the interests of farmers. We have co-operative credit societies, the business of which is to let a man have the use of money, when it is needed, at a low rate of interest. There is a great need for certain sorts of societies in our villages. For example, if we have a women's society, in which the women of the village may come together for exchanging ideas on such questions as cooking, stitching, the education of girls and so on, conditions in the village may become better very quickly. Another sort of society for which there is a need is a society of ex-soldiers, formed for the purpose of making existence in the villages cleaner, healthier, brighter and happier—a society for "better living."



I. In very early times there were no nations ; there were only families. The family was the earliest form of society. As the years went by the families became united into groups of families (tribes), and later still the tribes became united into nations. The nation is the latest form of society. First there were only families ; then there were tribes ; now there are nations. These are the three stages in the development (growth) of society from the earliest times to the present day. Side by side with the development of society from the family to the nation there has been a great development in transport, in industry, science and so on.

A1 : What's wrong with Ram ?
2 : What is the doctor doing ?
3 : To which doctor do Ram and his family go whenever anyone in the family is ill ?

B1 : What sort of trouble has Dada ?
2 : Why is the *vaidya* looking at Dada's skin ?
3 : Why doesn't Dada go to an English doctor when he is ill ?
4 : Why does he go to a *vaidya* whenever he is ill ?

C1 : What is wrong with Khaleel ?
2 : Why has he a bad pain in the stomach ?
3 : What is the *hakim* doing ?
4 : Why doesn't Khaleel go to an English doctor or a Hindu *vaidya* ?
5 : Why does he go to a *hakim* whenever he is ill ?

D1 : Are these three systems of medicine the same ?
2 : Why do you say that the three systems are different ?
3 : What is the only system of medicine which is in use in Europe and America ?
4 : What two systems of medicines are in wide use in the countryside in India ?

E1 : Is our system of farming different from the American system ?
2 : Why do you say that our system of farming is different from the American system ?
3 : What do they make use of for their farming operations in America ?
4 : What are we in this country dependent on for all the work ?

F1 : Our system of farming is different from the American system of farming. Is our system of living different from the American system of living ?
2 : Why do you say that the two systems of living are different ?

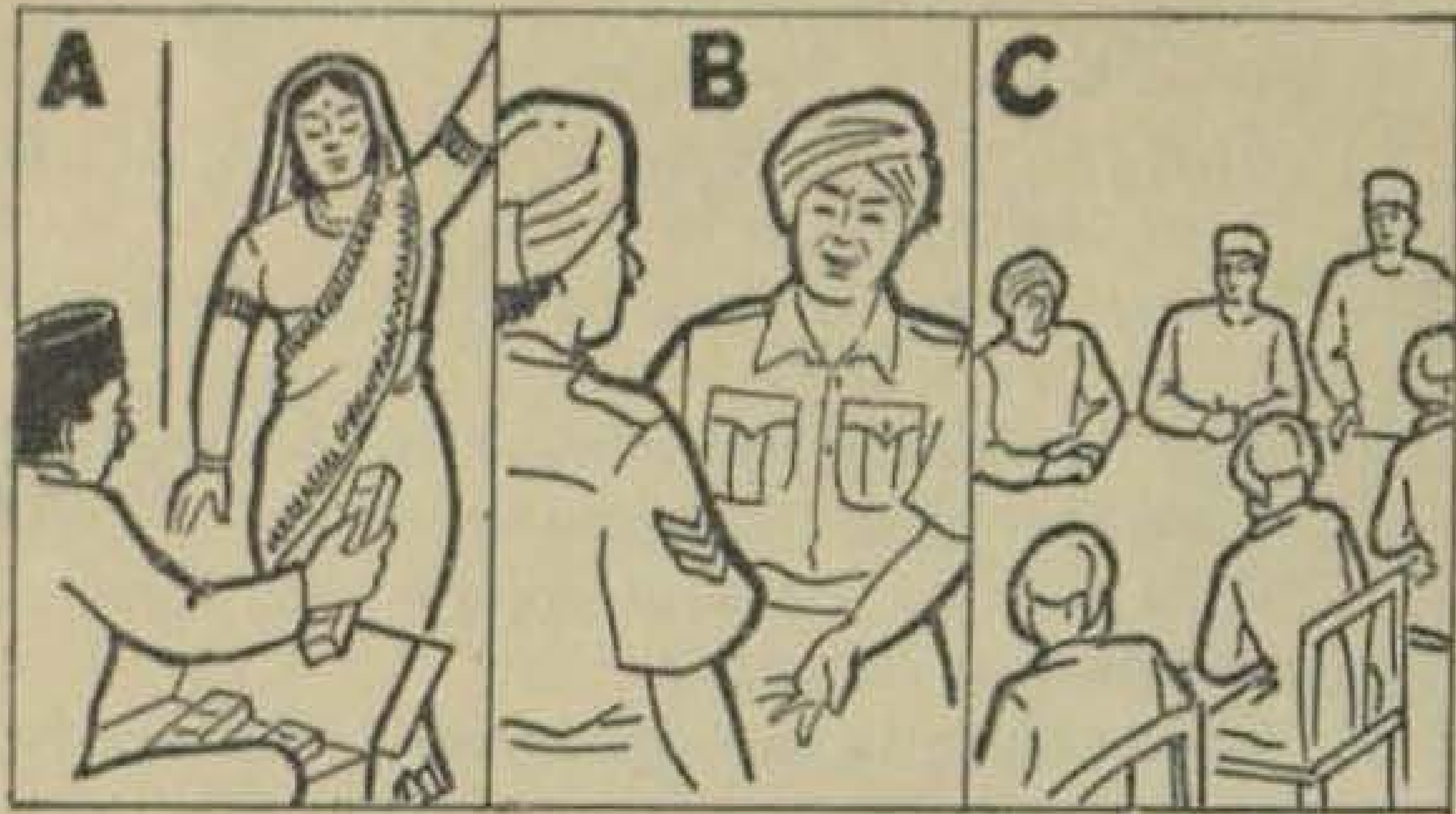
G1 : What is one way in which we are different from animals ?
2 : Why do you say that dogs and cows, for example, have no desire for the company of other dogs and cows ?
3 : Why have men been living together from the earliest times ?
4 : What is another way of saying that men have been living together from the earliest times (using the word *society*) ?
5 : When would there be no society ?

H1 : What is formed when men come together for any special purpose ?
2 : What is the business of a workers' (farmers', co-operative credit) society ?
3 : There is a great need for certain sorts of societies in our villages. Give one example of the sort of society for which there is a need.
4 : What use may women make of a women's society ?
5 : What would be the effect if a women's society was started in a village ?
6 : What is another sort of society for which there is a need ?
7 : What would be the purpose of an ex-soldiers' society ?

I1 : What was the earliest form of society ?
2 : What is the latest form of society ?
3 : What are the three stages in the development of society from the earliest times to the present day ?
4 : What other sorts of development have there been, side by side with the development of society from the family to the nation ?

Unit 68: Our Representatives

representative



68

A. Sita is getting some soap from a man who goes round the houses every two weeks with soap and other things, which he gives in exchange for money. He is a servant of one of the soap-making companies in the town, and has authority to do business for the company. In other words he is a representative of the company. The company sends him round to do business for the company; he is one of the company's representatives.

B. A sepoy and a sergeant are having a talk with one another. For some time now the quality of the food which is given to the sepoys has been very bad. So last night the sepoys had a meeting in the recreation room. After a short discussion the sepoys came to the decision to send one of themselves to the sergeant to make a protest against the quality of the food. This is the sepoy whom they have sent to the sergeant. The other sepoys have given him authority to see the sergeant and make a strong request for better food. He is their representative. The sergeant is saying to the sepoys' representative that he had no idea that the quality of the food was so bad, and that he would see the 'contractor' about it.

C. There has been trouble between the owners and the workers of a cloth mill, and two days back the workers sent a note saying that all work would be stopped if their war allowance was not increased from 10% to 20% of their pay. This is a meeting between the representatives of the workers and the representatives of the owners. The workers have sent four representatives and the owners have sent two. The workers' and the owners' representatives have authority from the workers and the owners to go into the question together and come to an agreement if possible. They are talking very seriously, because if there is no agreement work will be stopped and there will be much loss to the owners as well as to the workers.

D. This is a meeting of a village *panchayat*. These men have been sent by the men and women living in the village to make laws for the village. They are the villagers' representatives. These men have certain powers. What sort of business do they do? They do



68

every sort of business which has an effect on the well-being of the village. For example, they say what new roads are to be made or what bridges are to be put up. The village panchayat has great power over the village. It is, in fact, the government of the village.

E. How do the representatives of the villagers come to a decision about these important questions at a panchayat meeting? Before any decision is made all the representatives, or 'members' as they are sometimes named, have a chance to give their opinions. Everyone puts forward his suggestions, and there is a general discussion in the process of which all the details of the question are made clear. At the end of the discussion every member says if the suggestion put forward has his approval or not. And a suggestion becomes law only if it has the approval of most of the members of the panchayat.

F. We have seen that a panchayat has authority over the village. In the same way a municipality has authority over a town, and a 'Council' or 'Assembly' has authority over the nation.

G. The panchayat, the municipality and the Council or Assembly are the three most important bodies of men in a nation. They are the nation's government or rulers. Now who is responsible for the selection of our rulers? We are ourselves responsible. It is we who send them to the panchayat or the municipality or the Council. They are our representatives. It is we who give them authority to make laws for our comfort and well-being. In fact they are our servants. It is for us to say what laws are necessary to make conditions in our village or town or country better. And the rulers have to do as we say. They are the servants of the men and women whom they are ruling.

H. The rulers are our servants because it is we who are responsible for their selection. It is we who say which men are to be members of a panchayat or a municipality or a Council. What is the process by which the selection is made? When the time comes round for making the selection a number of men come forward for every village or town or part of the country. There is a special name for the men who come forward in this way—'candidates'. The candidates go round the village or the town, they see all the men and women,

they give talks, they take part in discussions, they say what they are going to do when they get into the panchayat or the municipality or the Council. The men who have the right to make the selection, the 'voters,' then see for themselves which of the candidates has the greatest knowledge and the most experience and would therefore make the best representative. On the day fixed for the selection, on 'election' day, the voters go to a place named the 'polling station'. Here every voter is given a bit of paper on which the names of all the candidates are put down. He goes to a room with the bit of paper in his hand, and secretly puts a cross against the name of the candidate who has his approval. Then he puts the bit of paper through a hole in a locked box. After every man has given his vote the boxes are unlocked, the bits of paper are taken out, and a Government officer goes through all the papers and makes a note of the number of votes which every candidate has got. After going through all the papers the officer says which of the candidates has got the greatest number of votes. He is the one who will go to the Council as the representative of the men and women living in that part of the country. He will be the Council Member from that part of the country.

I. The right to give a vote at an election is a very important right. You will have to take great care to see that the sort of man whom you send to the Council has great knowledge, long experience and the well-being of his country at heart.

A1 : From whom is Sita getting some soap ?
2 : Whose servant is he ?
3 : What has he authority to do ?
4 : What name do we give to a man who has authority to do business for a company ?
5 : So what is the man in the picture ?

B1 : What are the sepoy and the sergeant doing ?
2 : What is wrong with the quality of the food which is given to the sepoys ?
3 : So what did the sepoys do last night ?
4 : What decision did they come to ?
5 : What has the sepoy authority to do ?
6 : Who has given him this authority ?
7 : Whose representative is he ?
8 : What is the sergeant saying to the sepoys' representative ?

C1 : What did the workers do two days back ?
2 : Who is this meeting between ?
3 : What is the number of workers' (owners') representatives ?
4 : What have they authority to do ?
5 : Why are they talking so seriously to one another ?

D1 : What is this a meeting of ?
2 : By whom have these men been sent ?
3 : Why have they been sent ?
4 : What are these men ?
5 : Give examples of the sort of business which these men do.
6 : Why do we say that the village panchayat is the government of the village ?

E1 : What do the members do before a decision is made ?
2 : What is the purpose of the discussion ?
3 : What does every member do at the end of a discussion ?
4 : When does a suggestion become law ?

F : Who has authority over the village (town, nation) ?

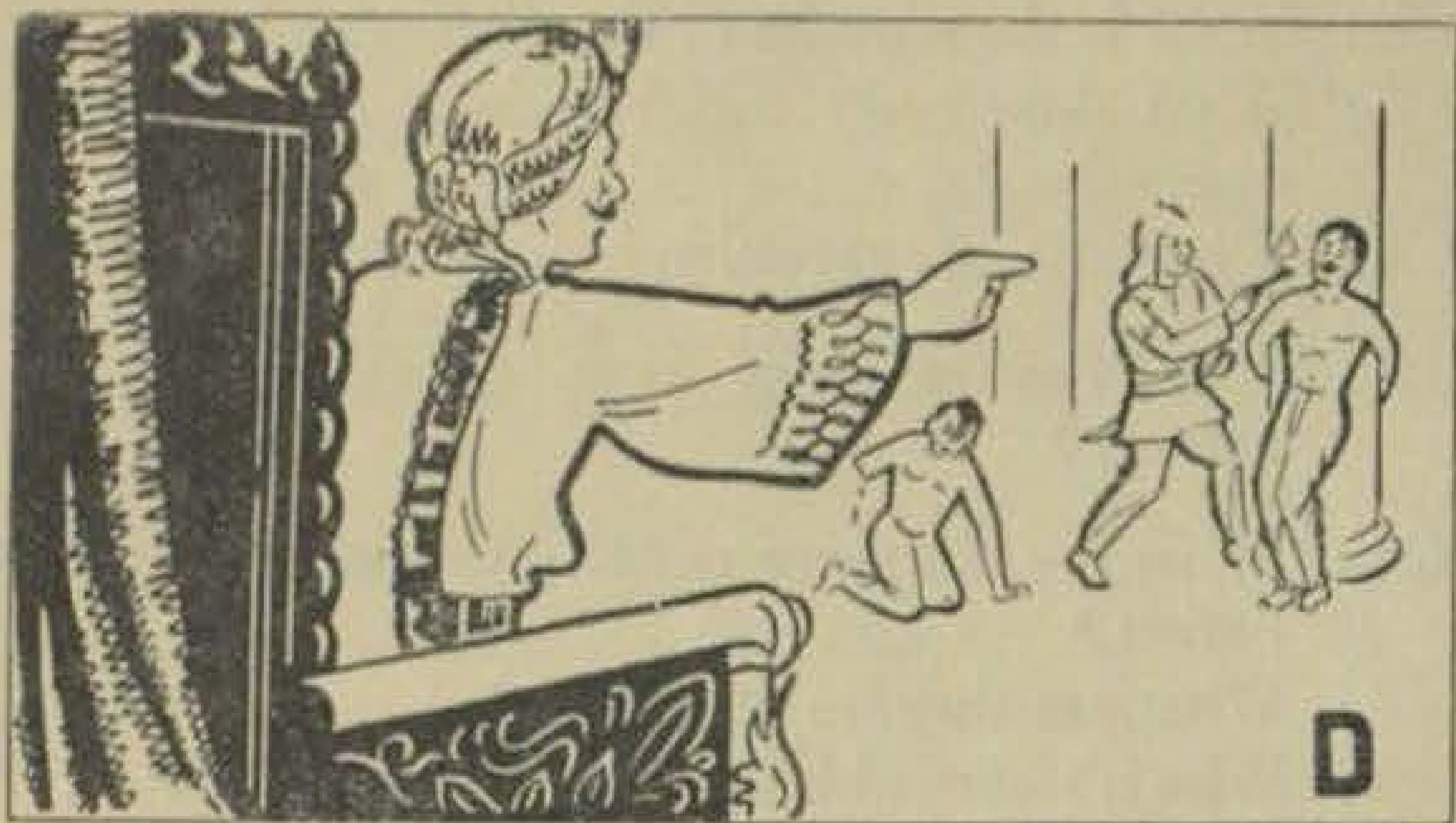
G1 : What are the three most important bodies in a nation ?
2 : What are they, in other words ?
3 : Who is responsible for the selection of our rulers ?
4 : Who sends them to the panchayat or the municipality or the Council ?
5 : Whose representatives are they ?
6 : Who gives them authority to make laws for our comfort and well-being ?
7 : Who is to say what laws are necessary to make conditions in our towns and villages better ?

H1 : Why do we say that they are our servants ?
2 : What do some men do when the time comes round for making the selection ?
3 : What special name do we give to a man who comes round in this way ?
4 : What do these candidates do ?
5 : What are 'voters' ?
6 : What do the voters do ?
7 : What name do we give to the day fixed for the selection ?
8 : Where do the voters go on election day ?
9 : What is every voter given here ?
10 : What is put down on these bits of paper
11 : Where does the voter take this bit of paper ?
12 : What does he put on the paper ? Where does he put the cross ?
13 : Where does he put the bit of paper after putting a cross on it ?
14 : When are the boxes unlocked and the papers taken out ?
15 : What does the government officer do with the bits of paper ?
16 : Which of the candidates will go to the Council as the representative of the men and women living in that part of the country ?
17 : What will he be ?

PART TWO

ONE-LEVEL (1): READING AND RETELLING

Unit 69 : Asoka the Kind



A. Asoka, who became King of India more than two thousand years back, is one of the greatest rulers of whom we have a record. At a time when most kings had no idea about the true duties of a king, when most kings did nothing but make war on one another, or give themselves up to pleasures of every sort, he had only one purpose—and that was to do good to the men and women over whom he had authority. Writers of history have given him the name, "Asoka the Kind."

B. What good did he do ? He had wells made in every part of the country, so that everyone might have enough water. He had trees planted at the sides of roads, so that tired men might have a rest in the shade of a tree. He had hospitals opened, where poor men might get free medical attention, and public gardens made where old men might go for a walk and young boys and girls for play. Asoka had a great belief in the education of women. Long before there were any schools for men Asoka had schools started for women.

C. It made Asoka very sad whenever he saw any one who was ill or poor. From time to time he would make a distribution of food and money to the poor of the country. He would never say a cruel word to anyone ; he would never give anyone any pain.

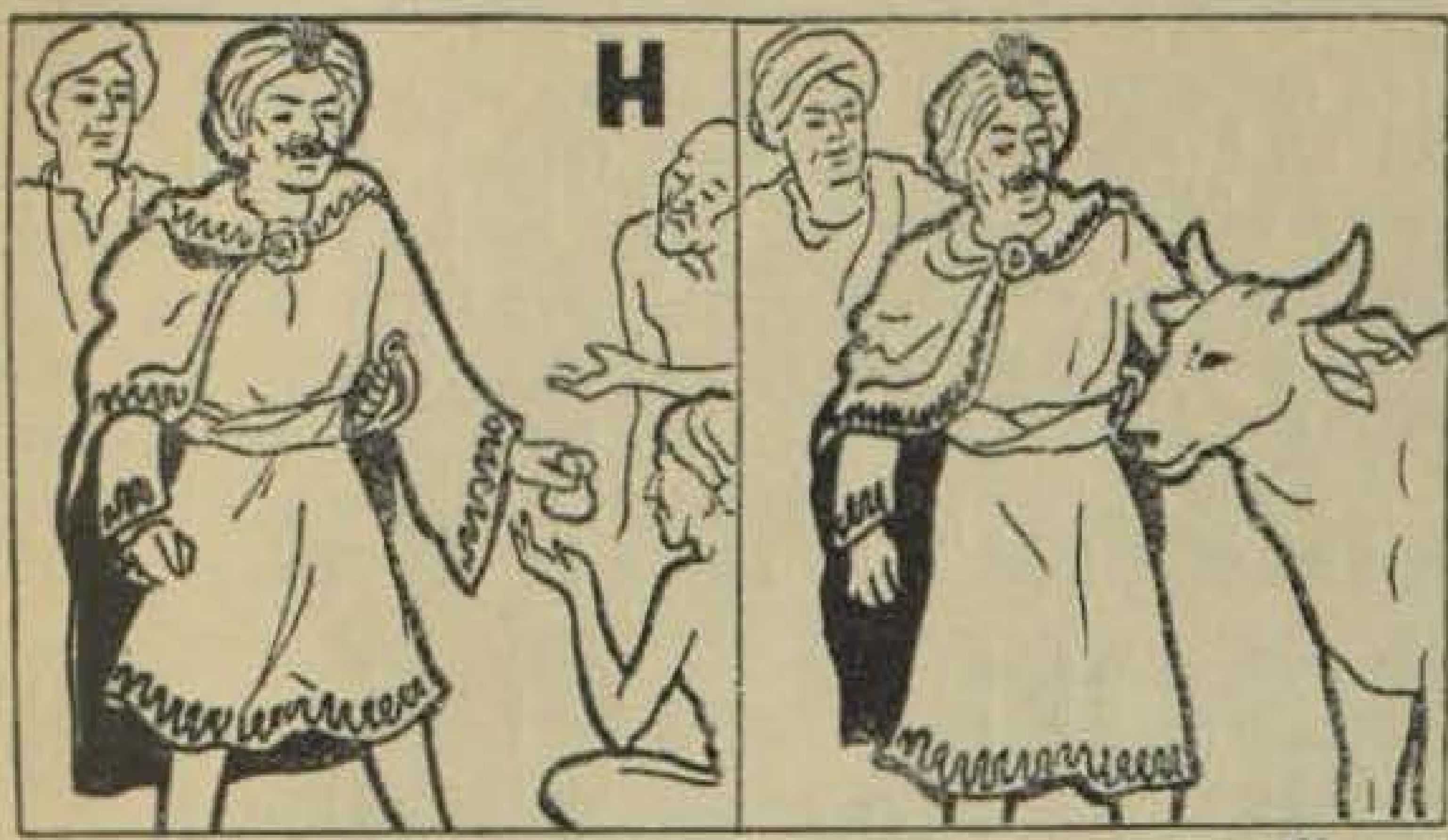
D. But there was a time when Asoka was quite as cruel as any other king in history, and was hated quite as much. When he first became king his behaviour was no different from that of any other king of those times. He would make war or take the country of another king by force quite as readily as any other king would. He was not specially kind to his friends, and to his enemies he was very cruel. Then one day suddenly a great change came over the man. From Asoka the Cruel he became Asoka the Kind. How did this sudden change come about ? What was responsible for the change which made him one of the greatest kings in history ? This story will give you the answer.

E. After fighting a great number of wars King Asoka got control over most of India. But there was one small part of the country which was still outside his rule. And the king was greatly troubled by the thought that the Ruler of Kalinga was the only ruler in all the land who did not come under his authority. There was no limit to Asoka's desire for power, and it was quite clear to him that his mind would have no peace till the King of Kalinga was as completely crushed as the other kings had been crushed before, in fact till he had became a servant in his palace.

F. It took Asoka only three days to get to the country of his enemy, and when his troops came bursting through the woods near Kalinga the King of Kalinga was taken completely by surprise. But he had given Asoka no cause for this violent attack on his land, he was completely in the right, he was a great soldier, and he would not give up without a fight. In comparison with Asoka's army his army was very small, and though they put up a great fight, Asoka's army was so strong that there was no hope for them. They were overcome in battle after battle, and when at last they saw that there was no hope they went running away into the woods with Asoka's troops after them.

G. One hundred thousand men were put to death on the field of battle, and another hundred thousand were put to death in the woods in which they had taken cover. Of the men who got away from Asoka's troops some came to their death because they were unable to get food ; others came to their death because there was no-one to take care of their wounds. There had never, in all the history of India, been such a great number of men put to death in one war ; there had never before been such destruction. This was not all. Of the men who were still living one hundred and fifty thousand were taken away from the land of their fathers to do hard work for the soldiers of Asoka in far-off Pataliputra. Fathers were separated from their sons and men were separated from their women. They were very sad days for the unhappy men and women of Kalinga, days which were full of pain and trouble.

H. But as the war went on Asoka, who at first had no thought but that of getting a great name as a soldier, became more and more troubled in his mind. He saw what his soldiers had done to the men of Kalinga. He saw the pain of some of the men who had been badly wounded. He saw strong and healthy men suddenly



69

cut to bits and falling down dead or wounded. He saw how some of the women who had come to the battlefield went completely off their heads because of shock and fear. He saw the unhappy look on the faces of those who were being taken away to far-away Pataliputra to do the work of common 'coolies'. It was then that the thought came into his mind that it was he who was responsible for all the death and the destruction which he saw round him. And looking at the battlefield his disgust went on increasing till at last it became so great that then and there he made up his mind that he would never again make war or give pain to those who had done him no wrong. In fact he went a step farther and said that even if someone did do him a wrong he would put up with it and would not give the man a punishment. From then on there would be no putting to death of men or animals in Pataliputra. Every man was to be good and kind to every other man. And no-one was to give an animal pain, however small the pain might be. And so Asoka was changed. It was the end of Asoka the Cruel and the birth of Asoka the Kind.

A1 : Who was Asoka ?
2 : When did he become King of India ?
3 : What sort of kings did we have in those days ?
4 : In what way was Asoka unlike the kings of his day ?
5 : What name have writers of history given him ?

B1 : Why did he have wells made in every part of the country ?
2 : Why did he have trees planted at the sides of the roads ?
3 : What sort of hospitals were opened ?
4 : What use did the old and the young make of the public gardens ?
5 : What did Asoka have a great belief in ?
6 : What did Asoka do for women ?

C1 : What made Asoka very sad ?
2 : What would he do from time to time for the poor of the country ?
3 : What was his behaviour generally ?

D1 : There was a time when Asoka was hated. Why was he hated ?
2 : What was his behaviour like when he first became king ?
3 : Why do you say that his behaviour was no different from that of any other king ?
4 : What was his behaviour to his friends (enemies) ?
5 : What change came over the man one day ?
6 : How was he named before the change ?
7 : How was he named after the change ?

E1 : How did he get control over most of India ?
2 : Who was the only ruler in the land who did not come under his authority ?
3 : What effect did this have on Asoka's mind ?
4 : What was necessary to his peace of mind ?

F1 : How long did it take for Asoka to get to the country of his enemy ?
2 : Was the King of Kalinga ready for the attack ?
3 : Why was there no hope for the King of Kalinga ?
4 : Why then did he put up a fight ?
5 : How did the battles go ?
6 : What did Kalinga's troops do when they saw that there was no hope for them ?
7 : What did Asoka's troops do ?

G1 : What number of men were put to death on the field (in the woods) ?
2 : How did the men who had got away from Asoka's troops come to their death ?
3 : Why is this war specially noted in the history of India ?
4 : What was the number of men who were taken away from the land of their fathers ?
5 : Why were they taken away to far-off Pataliputra ?
6 : Did the men take their families ?
7 : What sort of days were they for the unhappy men and women of Kalinga ?

H1 : What effect did the war have on Asoka's mind ?
2 : What different things did he see on the battle field ?
3 : Why did the women go off their heads ?
4 : What thought came into Asoka's mind ?
5 : How great was his disgust ?
6 : In fact he went a step farther. Why ? What did he say ?
7 : What changes in the law did Asoka make about putting men and animals to death ?
8 : What was to be the behaviour of one man to another ?
9 : What was this the end (birth) of ?

Unit 70: .Money and Power

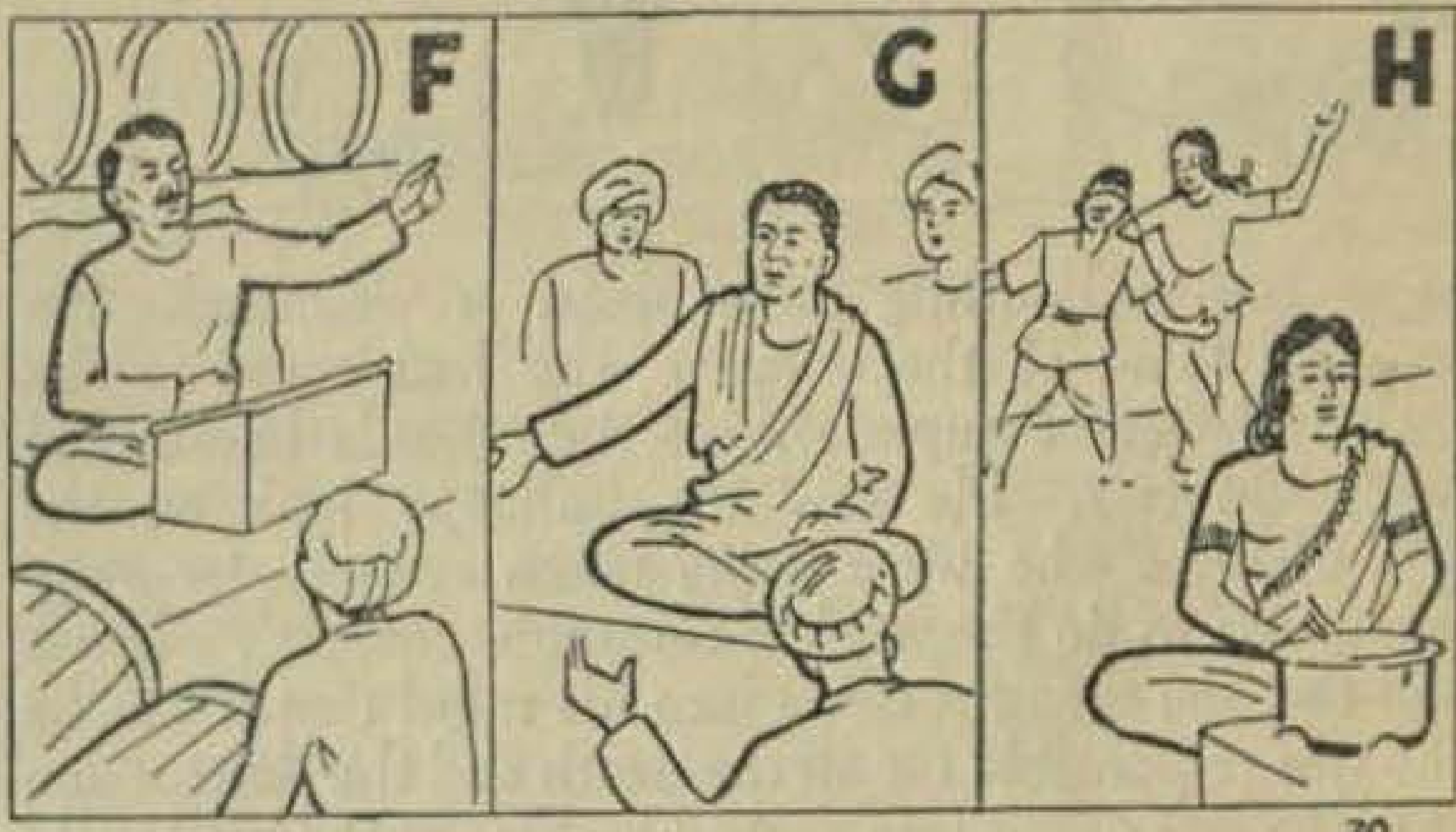


A. A very long time back three brothers were living in a little house in a village in Bengal. They were all very poor. All the property which they had was a mango-tree in a field in front of their house. But there was never any trouble between the brothers at any time, and they were quite happy with what little money they got by taking the mangoes to market. There was a division of work among the three brothers ; while two of them took the fruit to the market the third kept a watch over the mango-tree.

B. One of the gods in heaven was very pleased with the three brothers. They were so good, loving and kind-hearted. He said to himself that it was only right for them to be given a reward, but not before they had been tested. He had to make certain that they were in fact as good as they seemed to be. So he came down to earth in the form of a beggar (very poor man). It was the day on which the oldest of the three brothers was keeping a watch over the tree. The beggar went up to him with a request for two of the mangoes which were hanging on the tree. It made the oldest brother very sad to see the poor man, and getting two mangoes from the tree he gave them to him. The beggar was very pleased. Putting his hand on the brother's head he said, " May the gods in heaven do you good for being so kind to a poor old man." So saying he went away.

C. The day after the god came down again. It was now the second brother's turn. He was seated on a box keeping the ' crows ' and other birds off the tree with a long stick. The beggar went up to him with a request for three mangoes. The brother was so kind that without a thought for himself or his brothers he took three mangoes off the tree and gave them to him. The god was more pleased than ever. " No kind act on this earth ever goes without a reward, my son," he said. " May the gods give you ten times as much as you have given me." So saying he went away.

D. The day after that the god put on the dress of a beggar and came down to the earth a third time. It was now the turn of the youngest brother. He was walking round and round the tree attempting to keep the birds and insects off the tree with a net. The god went up to him as before, this time with a request for four mangoes. The brother was very poor himself, but no beggar had ever been turned away from his house without money or food. So he at once took four mangoes off the tree and gave them to the poor man. " The gods take special care of those who are good and kind to the poor, my son," said the beggar. " You will never have regret that you gave a poor man part of your food." So saying he went away.



E. The three brothers had now been fully tested. The time for their reward had come. The god, now changed into a *sanyasi*, went to the house of the brothers when all the three were present. When he went in they were having their food. Seating himself he said that the gods were pleased with their behaviour, and so they had sent him to give them anything which would make them happy. Let the three brothers take thought, say what would make them happy and he was ready to give it to them.

F. The oldest brother was the first to come out with his request. " If I had much money and property I would be very happy," he said. " Please make me a great trader." On hearing the oldest brother's request the sanyasi made a sign with his hand and the oldest brother was changed into a great wine-trader. Looking round him he saw great vessels full of wine. A number of men were working in the fields outside putting in seeds of the vine (grape-tree), while others were crushing the fruit to get the wine out of it. He was, in fact, in the middle of a wine-producing village of which he was the owner.

G. The second brother then made his request. " If I had great power I would be happy," he said. " Please make me a great judge." The sanyasi made a sign with his hand and the second brother was at once changed into a judge. Looking round him he saw that he was seated on a high stage in a court-room full of men. A lawyer was putting a number of questions to a man who was responsible for some crime or other. The second brother had in fact become a judge, with the power to send men to prison or have them whipped or even put to death.

H. The youngest brother then came out with his request. " I have no use for money or power," he said. " It does not seem to me that they necessarily

make a man happy." Said the sanyasi, "What is your request then ?" The young man made answer, "Give me a woman who will be a good friend to me and a loving mother to my boys and girls. That is the only request which I have to make." "I have little doubt that you have made the wisest request of all, my son," said the sanyasi, and he made a sign with his hand. There was a sudden change, and the young man was transported into a beautiful little house full of air and sunlight. A boy and a girl were playing in one room and a young woman was cooking a meal in the other.



I. A year later the god again came down as a beggar to see how the three brothers were getting on. He first went to the wine-trader, who was now very well-off and was living in a great house full of servants. The beggar took his place at the door and made a request for a glass of wine. The wine-trader got very angry. "If I gave every beggar a glass of wine I would very quickly become a beggar myself," he said. And he gave his servants an order to send the beggar at the door away. But the beggar would not go. "A year back you were a poor man," he said. "But you were good and kind then. Now, though you are well-off, you are cruel and hard-hearted. Men like you have no right to have money or property. It is better to be good than to have money." So saying he made a sign with his hand. Then and there the great wine-trader was changed back into the old gardener who had made a living by taking his mangoes to market.

J. The beggar then went to the house of the judge. The judge was having a great meal with some of his friends. After the meal was over and the men were having a smoke the beggar went up to the judge and said that he had been tricked out of his money by a cruel old bania. He made a strong request to the judge to send for the bania so that he might get his money back. On hearing the story the judge gave a cruel laugh, and said that he had no time to give attention to every beggar who came to him with a protest against the behaviour of someone or other. "Have him kicked out of the house," was his order to the servants. This made the beggar very angry. Lifting up his voice he said, "Have you no memory of the days when you made a living by taking mangoes to market ? You had no power over other men then. But you were good and kind to everyone who came to you. Now you have great power but you have no kind feeling in your heart for those who are poor or in trouble. Men like you have no right to have power over other men. It is better to be good and kind than to have great power." So saying he made a sign with his hand, and the judge was at once changed back into the gardener who made a living by taking mangoes to market.

K. From the judge the beggar went to the house of the youngest brother, who had very little money and no power at all. One look round the house made it clear that though there was very little material comfort the man and the woman were living in complete harmony with one another and with their boy and girl. The beggar went up to the man with a request for food. The man was very pleased to see someone to whom he might give part of his food. "Come in, my friend," he said with a smile. "I am not very well-off, and the sort of food which I have is very simple. But whatever food is placed on the table is yours as much as it is mine."

L. The minute the man said these words the beggar was changed back into a god. "God gives man money and property so that he may in his turn give part of it to others who are in need," he said. "God gives man power so that he may make certain that those who are feeble and poor are not troubled by those who are strong and well-off. It is men like you who have a right to have money as well as power." So saying the god made a sign with his hand. That very minute the man was changed into a great king with power and authority over fifty million men.

P1 : I have a hope that I will be first in the (English test).

S : English test : Urdu test, shooting practice, signalling test, running competition, jumping competition, etc.

2 : There is a limit to the number of things it is possible to put into that (bag).

S : Bag : box, knapsack, kit-bag, haversack.

3 : He is a very old man ; his (hands) (are) shaking all the time.

S : Hands : feet, head, body.

4 : The news of his (son's) death gave the old man a great shock.

S : Son's : daughter's, brother's, sister's, wife's.

5 : I was shocked when I saw my (friend) ; (he) seemed so (thin).

S : Friend, thin : brother, feeble ; sister, old.

6 : He gave me a violent (blow) (on) the (head).

S : Blow, head : kick, back ; my hand, twist.

7 : Are cows violent animals ?

S : Cows : horses, tigers, sheep, goats, lions, leopards, etc.

Unit 71 : The Barber of Bagdad



A. In the days of the Caliph Haroun-al-Rashid there was a man named Ali Sakal who had made a great name for himself as a barber. He was an expert in the art of hair-cutting and shaving. The men of Bagdad went so far as to say that Ali Sakal had such control over his hands that he was able to give a man a haircut or a shave with his eyes completely covered, without making even a mark on the man's skin. It was to him that all the important men of Bagdad went for a shave or a haircut, and naturally Ali Sakal made a great amount of money. He was a very hard-working man, but as he made more and more money his behaviour, specially with the poor, became less and less kind. He had such a high opinion of himself that he would not give anyone under the rank of a 'bey' or an 'agha' a shave or a haircut, and in time he came to be bitterly hated by the poor of Bagdad.

B. Ali Sakal was a great lover of comfort, and though fire-wood was very dear in Bagdad he made much use of it in his house and in his haircutting saloon. He was ever ready to give a high price for the fire-wood which he got, and so the wood-cutters of Bagdad would take their wood first to Ali Sakal's saloon, where they were certain of getting a good price for it.

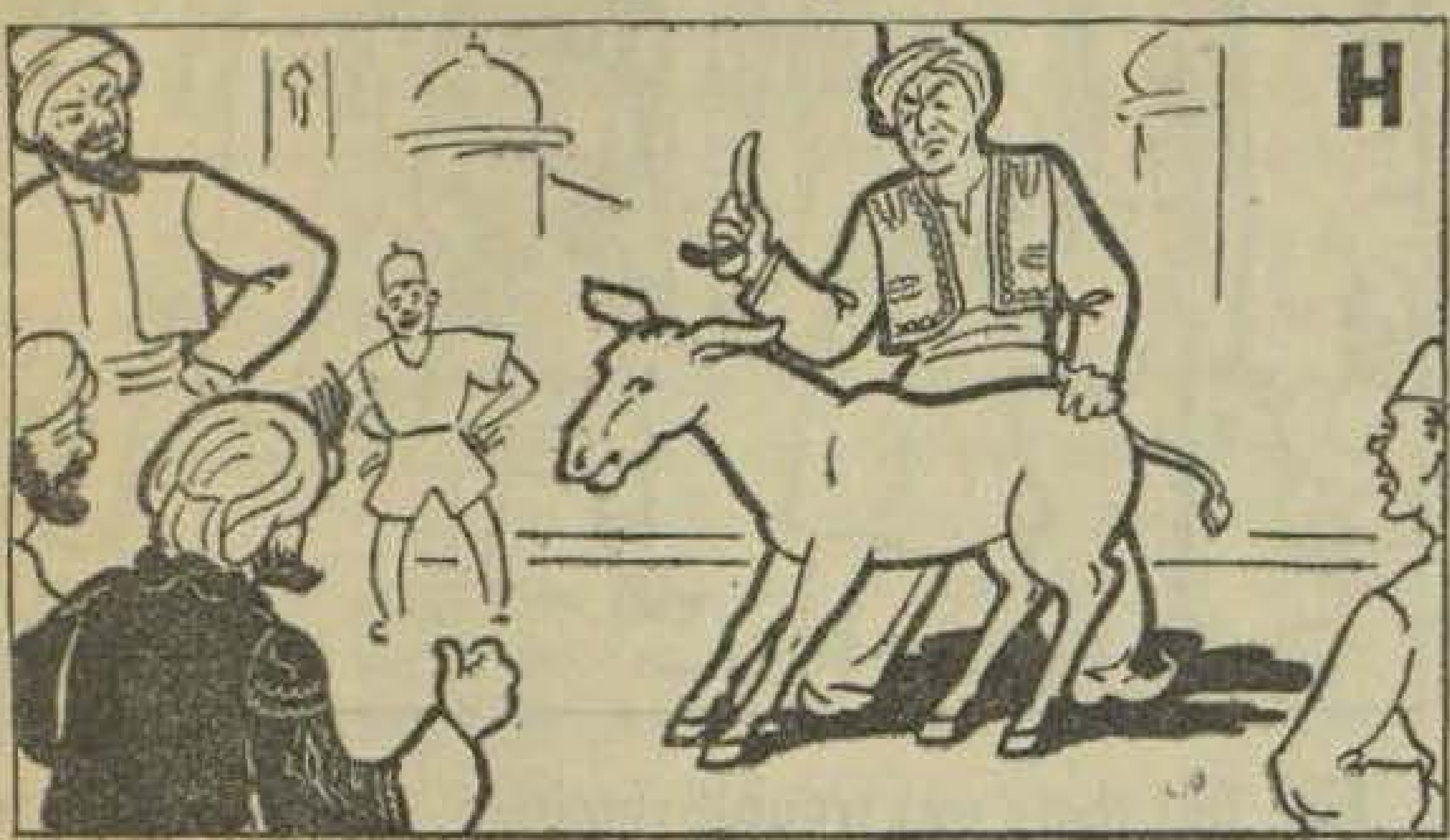
C. One day a poor wood-cutter, who was new to his trade, went to Ali Sakal with the wood placed on the back of a donkey. A look at the man's face made it quite clear to Ali Sakal that he was a very simple villager and might be tricked by almost anyone. After a short talk between the two men the price of the fire-wood was fixed. The agreement was that the wood-cutter was to give Ali Sakal all the wood on the back of the donkey for ten bits of gold. The wood-cutter was very pleased. Undoing the knot he took all the wood off the back of the donkey, put it on the steps of the saloon and put out his hand for the money. "Money ?" said Ali Sakal. "You have not given me all the wood which is on the back of the donkey." "I have," said the poor wood-cutter. "No, you have not," said Ali Sakal, and pointing to the 'saddle' on the back of the donkey he went on, "You have to give me the saddle as well. Wasn't that the agreement ?" "The saddle ?" said the wood-cutter with great surprise. "Yes, the saddle," said Ali Sakal. "The saddle is made of wood. And our agreement was—all the wood on the back of the donkey." The wood-cutter was shocked. "No-one would ever make such an agreement," he said. "But you did," was the answer. Ali Sakal was getting angry. "My offer was for all the wood on the back of the donkey. Give me the saddle before I make you. You are only wasting my time." "I am a very poor man, Ali Sakal," said the wood-cutter. "If I give you my saddle, where am I to get another saddle from ?" "That is your business," said Ali Sakal roughly. So saying he took the saddle off the back of the donkey and had the poor unhappy wood-cutter pushed off the steps of his saloon.

D. The wood-cutter went running to the *cadi* and gave him an account of what had taken place. But the cadi gave no attention to his protest because he was one of those who had their hair cut regularly at Ali Sakal's saloon. From the cadi's house the wood-cutter went to a higher judge with his protest. But it was no use because this higher judge, like the cadi, was among those who had their hair cut regularly at Ali Sakal's saloon. From the judge the wood-cutter went to the highest officer in the country, the *mufti* himself. The mufti was a much kinder man than the cadi or the judge. After hearing the man's story the mufti said that it was quite true that it was a very dirty trick which had been played on the wood-cutter, but law was law and he was unable to do anything for him.

E. The poor wood-cutter was bitterly angry. But he would not give up hope. Over the mufti there was the Caliph, to whom he would now send a protest. Straightaway he went to a man who had a knowledge of reading and writing and made him put down his story on a bit of paper. Putting his protest in his pocket he went to the mosque where the Caliph said his prayers every Friday. There he took up his position near the door. After a short time he saw the Caliph coming up the steps of the mosque with his officers at his back. When the Caliph got to the doorway the wood-cutter went down on his knees before him and put his protest in the Caliph's hand.

F. The Caliph went through the protest with much amusement, and when he came to the end of it he gave a loud laugh. But he was very sorry for the poor wood-cutter. Right was on the wood-cutter's side but the law was against him. Haroun-al-Rashid might be the Caliph of Bagdad, with unlimited power over all the men in the country, but he had no authority to go against the law. Turning to the wood-cutter he said that it would be wrong to give a decision against Ali Sakal because the law was on his side. But there was something which the Caliph might still do for the wood-cutter. He then made a sign to the wood-cutter to come very near him. When the wood-cutter came near, the Caliph put his lips against the wood-cutter's ear and said something in a very low voice which sent him away feeling very happy.

G. Some months later the wood-cutter came back to Ali Sakal as if Ali Sakal had done him no wrong and he and Ali Sakal were very good friends. He said that he and a friend were badly in need of a haircut. Would Ali Sakal give them the pleasure of having their hair cut by no less a man than the most expert barber in all Bagdad ? Ali Sakal was not very pleased with the request, but after a short time he said that he was ready to do the cutting for a special price. The price was fixed and the two men got ready for the cutting.



71

H. Ali Sakal seemed to be in a very good humour. While he was cutting the wood-cutter's hair he gave him a detailed account of his business, how it was started and how, bit by bit, he became so very well-off. When the wood-cutter's hair was cut he said, " I do not see your friend. Where is he ? " The wood-cutter said that his friend was waiting outside and he would go and get him. So saying he went out to get his friend. After five minutes Ali Sakal was surprised to see the wood-cutter coming back with his donkey. " You are not saying that I am to give your donkey a haircut and a shave," said the barber angrily. " That is the agreement," was the answer. " No less and no more." " Agreement ? " said the barber. " You are off your head. Get out of this place." So saying the barber gave the wood-cutter a violent push and put him out of his saloon. The wood-cutter went straight to the Caliph and gave him an account of everything which had taken place. After hearing the wood-cutter's story the Caliph gave an order to one of his officers to go and get Ali Sakal and his razors without loss of time. In less than half an hour Ali Sakal was taken before the Caliph.

THE CALIPH : Is this man's story true ?

ALI SAKAL : Yes, Your Majesty.

THE CALIPH : Did you make an agreement to give him and his friend a haircut and shave for five bits of gold ?

ALI SAKAL : Yes, Your Majesty.

THE CALIPH : Why did you not keep the agreement then ?

ALI SAKAL : The man is off his head, Your Majesty, and no agreement made with a man who is off his head is good in law.

THE CALIPH : And why do you say that the man is off his head ?

ALI SAKAL : Because no-one but a man who is off his head would keep company with a donkey and say that the donkey is his friend.

THE CALIPH : And who would ever say that a saddle is part of the wood on the back of a donkey ? No, no, I will not let you off this time. It is the wood-cutter's turn now. Get your soap and razors ready. Someone go and get the donkey."

I. And so the most noted barber in all Bagdad had to give a donkey a haircut and shave in full view of all the officers who were present at the mosque. While the man was cutting the donkey's hair they all had a good laugh. But no-one was more pleased than the simple wood-cutter on whom such a dirty trick had been played. The Caliph gave him a reward and sent him away very happy.

P1 : That isn't a natural (flower) ; it's made of (paper).

S : Flower, paper : leaf, paper ; apple, clay (earth).

2 : It is natural for a (tailor) to be interested in clothing.

S : Tailor, clothing : shoe-maker, shoes ; wood-worker, tables, etc. ; motor mechanic, cars ; engineer, bridges, etc.

3 : When a man gets (bad) news he is naturally (shocked).

S : Bad, shocked : good, pleased ; strange, surprised ; sad, unhappy.

4 : One of the rules of the road is that you have (to keep to the left).

S : Keep to the left : overtake on the right ; come to a stop when the red light is on, when the policeman puts out his hand, put out your hand when you make a turn, etc.

5 : The nation was very happy under the rule of (Asoka).

S : Asoka : Akbar, etc.

6 : (Asoka) was ruler of India more than (two thousand) years back.

S : Asoka : Akbar, Jehangir, etc.

7 : He gave me such a violent (blow) that I became unconscious.

S : Blow : kick.

8 : I was not conscious of the (pain) at the time.

S : Pain : noise, danger, change in the weather.

9 : He says he put his friend's (money) into his pocket unconsciously. He had no idea what he was doing.

S : Money : ornaments, jewels, watch, gold chain, etc.

10 : The (hat) was in a very bad condition. It was (very old). That is why I gave it to a beggar.

S : Hat, very old ; coat, full of holes ; shirt, badly cut ; trousers, badly damaged.

11 : The conditions in which he was living were disgusting. (The room was small and dark.)

S : The room, etc. : the floor was frequently wet ; the house was very dirty ; the food was very bad.

Unit 72 : A Rajput Story

A. What are the qualities of a good soldier ? A good soldier is strong and healthy ; he has a good knowledge of the use of his weapons ; he does as he is ordered ; and when he is fighting in a war he goes through it to the bitter end, however hard the conditions in which he is fighting may be. But there is one more quality which is quite as important as any which have been named. A good soldier is ready to give up his very existence for the cause for which he is fighting. The history of India is full of examples of soldiers who have gone to their death so that the enemies of their country might be overcome.

B. Here is a story of old Rajputana, of the time when Jehangir was Emperor of India and the Rajputs were still fighting to get the Moghuls out of their country. The Rajputs were the only enemies still in the field, and the Emperor at Delhi sent army after army to Rajputana to put an end to the Rajput power once and for all. The Rajputs had no chance against the Moghuls, because the Moghuls had more men and were better armed. It was a very strange sort of war which the Rajputs made on the Moghuls. There were no battles in the open field, with the two armies facing one another. The sort of war which the Rajputs made was guerilla war, in which their soldiers might be anywhere and an attack might be made on the Moghuls at any time.

C. Though the Moghuls were in complete control of all the towns, the Rajput soldiers having been pushed into the woods and wastelands far away from town or village, there was no place in Rajputana where they were completely safe ; there was ever a fear that they might be attacked at any time. Moghul troops on the march from one fort to another had been suddenly attacked from the back or the sides any number of times. Moghul governors on their way from one town to another had been suddenly fired upon. Men of Moghul garrisons, sleeping quietly in their beds, because they were certain that the Rajputs were far away, had been surprised in the middle of the night by Rajput soldiers falling on them with uplifted sword.

D. Among the greatest of the Rajput chiefs was the Rana of Mewar. At the time of this story the Moghul Emperor Jehangir had taken the greater part of Mewar in addition to the chief town of Chittor. The Rana was living in the jungle with a small number of men who were still true to him. It seemed to the Moghuls that the Rana had been completely crushed and would give them no more trouble. But the Rana had not given up hope and was still designing to make one more attempt to take Chittor back from the Moghuls. He sent secret orders to his men to get their weapons ready and have a meeting with him in the middle of a wood where no Moghul soldiers had ever been. When the men came together, armed and ready, he gave them an idea of how he was designing to get the Moghuls out of Chittor and if possible out of all Mewar. An attack was to be made on Chittor first, and some of the men were to get into the town through a secret doorway of the existence of which only he had knowledge. The attack was to take place at the time of the new moon, when all his men could get together without being seen. There was a short discussion, after which they all gave approval to the Rana's design for an attack on Chittor.



72

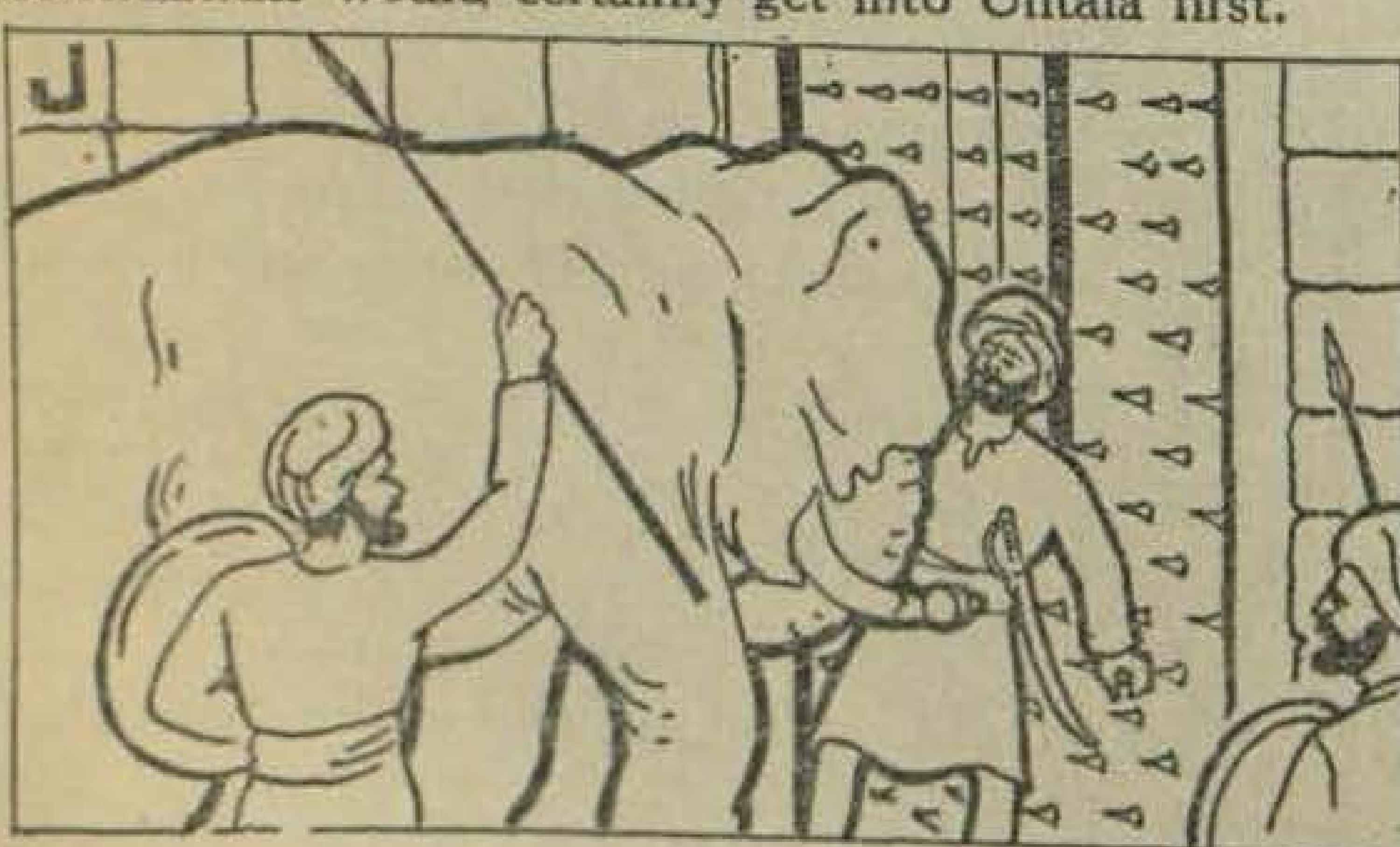
E. But there was trouble coming. Who was to have the right of opening the attack ? That was the question. The chiefs of the Saktawat and Chondawat families at once got up and said that the right of attacking first was theirs and no other's. Only one of the two might go first but not the two together. There was a heated argument while the two chiefs put forward their right to go first. The argument became more and more violent, till at last it seemed as if from words they would come to blows. What was the Rana to do ? If there was an open fight between the two chiefs the attack on Chittor would have to be given up. It was necessary to make peace between the two men. After some thought the Rana came out with a suggestion. Turning to the two men he said, " You two say that you have the right to go first. Now before we make an attack on Chittor we will have to take Untala, which is on the way to Chittor. I say that whichever of you gets into Untala first will have the right of opening the attack on Chittor." The decision which the Rana gave was so wise that there was a burst of approval from the chiefs who were present at the meeting.

F. And so, the day after, the two chiefs of the Saktawat and Chondawat families made an early start for the fort of Untala with their two armies. Untala was at the top of a slope midway between the jungle and the fort of Chittor. It had strong high walls all round, from the inside of which the garrison was able to keep back attackers without much trouble. The chief of the Saktawats made his way straight to the door of the fort with the help of a guide. The enemy was not ready for the attack, and it seemed as if the Saktawats might be able to take the fort without firing a shot. But very quickly the garrison took up their position on the walls and put up such a strong fight that the attackers were sent rolling back from the foot of the walls. It was a sad blow to the hopes of the Saktawat family.

G. And what was the chief of the Chondawats doing while the Saktawats were attacking the fort? He had had trouble in making his way to the fort because he had no guide to give him help. He came up to Untala much later. While he made ready for the attack the Saktawats were being rolled back from the door of the fort. The chief of the Chondawats gave a smile of pleasure when he saw the Saktawats running away. He had never had a very high opinion of their fighting qualities. Their present behaviour only made it certain that he was right in his opinion. It was his turn now. For him there was no question of going back once the attack was opened. It was victory or death.

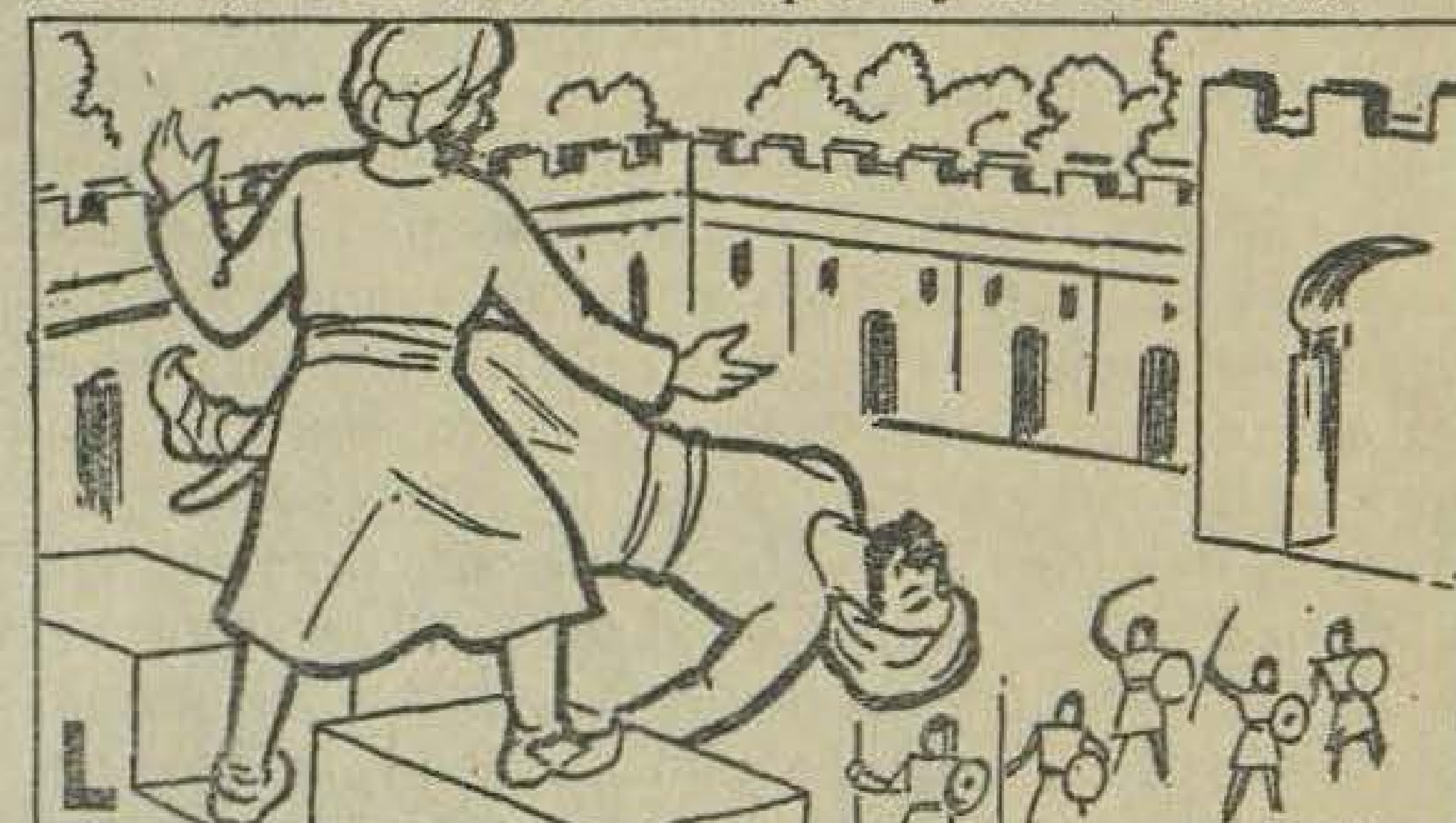
H. And so the chief of the Chondawats got ready for the attack on the fort. He had 'ladders' with him, and his men were ordered to put them against the wall. When the ladders were in position he got up the steps with his sword waving in the air and his men at his back. They were only half-way up the ladder when a shot was fired at the chief of the Chondawats. No-one had any idea where the shot came from. All the men saw was their chief falling dead on the earth at the foot of the walls. This came as a great shock to the Chondawats, who went running away. In a short time all the men were back at their camp, and the Chondawat attack had been smashed quite as completely as the Saktawat attack had been.

I. What were the Saktawats doing after their first defeat? They were getting ready for a second attack to get the door of the fort forced open. They had an elephant, on which all their hopes were based. The elephant would get the door open by pushing its way in. That is what they said among themselves. So they took the elephant up to the walls of the fort, but the elephant would not go pushing through the door because it was covered all over with sharp thick nails. What were they to do now? The elephant had come to a complete stop in front of the door. No-one had an idea what form the attack was now going to take. While the chief of the Saktawats was in deep thought and the others were looking on a loud cry came from the direction of the Chondawats, who were now moving forward to the attack once again. To the unhappy Saktawats it seemed as if all hope had gone; the Chondawats would certainly get into Untala first.



72

J. At this minute there took place one of the most noted events in the long and troubled history of Rajastan. The chief of the Saktawats came forward and put his body between the elephant and the nail-covered gate of the fort. There was nothing which the chief was not ready to give up, if only his men were able to get into Untala first. When the elephant went forward, smashing its way through the door, the chief was crushed to death, but an opening into the fortress had been made and the mass of Rajput soldiers went in feeling certain that they were the first to get into Untala. But very quickly their hopes were smashed to bits. A loud cry of pleasure came from the direction of the Chondawats, who had got into the fort only a minute before the door was forced open by the Saktawats.



72

K. How did this come about? When the chief of the Chondawats was put to death by a musket ball the man who came after him in rank, the chief of Deogarh, took over control of the attackers. He was as strong as a tiger and had as little fear in his heart as a lion. He put the body of his dead chief on his back and got up the ladder once again. When he was level with the wall he got the body over and let it go, so that it was dropped into the fortress. Down came the body right at the foot of the walls. The chief of the Chondawats had got into Untala first. Giving their battle-cry the Chondawats came up the ladder after their chief, driving the Moghuls before them. At the same time the Saktawats were coming in through the doorway.

The flag of Mewar was planted on the top of Untala, but the right of opening the attack on Chittor went to the Chondawats.

P1: This (pen) was offered to me by a friend on my birthday. It was a birthday 'present'.

S: Pen: watch, gold chain, ornament, jewel, ring, etc.

2: What is the reason for boiling (milk)?

S: Milk: water.

3: The police had a good reason for taking the man to the police station. He had taken an (umbrella) from a store when the storeman wasn't looking.

S: Umbrella: stick, parcel, etc.

4: The teacher (became angry) for no reason.

S: Became angry: became violent, gave me a blow, said unkind words, gave me a punishment, sent me out of the class.

Unit 73 : The Secret of Better Living



A. Years back, in a village in South India, two families were living side by side. One of the two families was quite well-off and the other was poor. But strange to say the family which was well-off seemed poor, and the family which was poor seemed well-off. The poor family were frequently in debt and they never had any money in the house, because whenever any came in it went on good food, or a new sari, or an ornament of some sort. The young ones were not sent to school and were badly looked after. When someone was ill there would be no money for a doctor. But from time to time there would be a smell of good food cooking, and from time to time the poor man's wife was seen going out for a walk dressed up in a bright sari and covered with cheap jewels.

B. But the wife of the man who was well-off had very simple food and put on even simpler dress. Now we all have a natural tendency to make a comparison between ourselves and other persons, and as from time to time the woman got the same good smell of cooking and saw the bright saris and ornaments her desire for very good food and new saris and ornaments became stronger and stronger. At last she was unable to put up with it any longer, and so she went to her husband (the man she was married to) and had a talk with him. "I have come to say that I am going back to my mother and that I will not come back again."

C. The husband was surprised. He had never had any trouble with his wife before. "And what is your reason ?" he said at last. "The reason is that you do not give me enough money for good food and saris and ornaments," was the answer. "But why this sudden desire for beautiful saris and ornaments ?" said the husband. "Is it not a very natural desire? Have you ever had a look at the family living near us ? They are much poorer than we are, but they seem to have more comforts. The woman has a new sari every time she goes out, and she is quite covered with ornaments. And everything I have is so simple. I will not put up with it any more. I am starting out for my father's house this very night." She seemed very angry. But the husband gave a smile. "Do not make up your mind so quickly," he said in a quiet voice. "Give me a little more time. Maybe things will get better."

"All right," she said. "I will give you three months."

D. That same day the husband took 500 rupees from his bank, and when it was night time he put the money in a little bag and put the bag over the side of the wall in front of the other man's house.

E. Three months later the wife went to her husband and said, "I am not going back to my mother after all." "And why not ?" said the husband. "Because the other family don't seem to be living so well now. There isn't that smell of good food, and I no longer see the wife going about in bright saris," was the answer. "I was quite certain that she would not," said the husband without any surprise.

F. Then he gave her an account of what he had done—how he had put a bag with 500 rupees in it in front of the other man's door the day on which they had their talk. "Why did you do that ?" said the surprised wife. And this was the answer. "When a man is poor and there is very little hope of his ever becoming well-off all the money which he gets is used up in an attempt to make his existence brighter. He goes after all sorts of pleasures and amusements without giving a thought to the future. So it seemed to me that if the man had 500 rupees he would not go on giving his family bright saris, cheap ornaments and unhealthy food but would make better use of the money which he gets." "He has done so," said the wife. "Their boys and girls are better taken care of than before. Their house is cleaner. They all seem much happier. You are a very wise man, my husband," she said.

G. So you see how important savings are. And even the poorest of us is able to put by some money if only he makes up his mind to do so. The important thing is to make a start now. Once a start is made and you see your savings increasing you will have a certain pleasure in putting money in your savings bank every month. And once there is a tendency to put by money every month you may be certain that in time you will get into the way of using your money wisely.

A1 : Where were the two families living side by side ?
2 : Were they well-off or poor ?
3 : Which family seemed poor (well-off) ?
4 : Who were frequently in debt ?
5 : Why did they never have any money in the house ?
6 : Were the young ones sent to school ?
7 : How were they looked after ?
8 : Why wasn't a doctor sent for when anyone was ill ?
9 : What sort of smell was there from time to time ?
10 : How was the poor man's wife dressed when she went out for a walk ?
11 : What was she covered with ?
B1 : What sort of food had the wife of the man who was well-off ?
2 : What sort of dress did she put on ?

3 : What sort of tendency have we all ?
4 : What was the woman's feeling when she saw the other man's wife going out in bright saris and cheap ornaments ?
5 : What did she do ?
6 : What did she say ?
C1 : What was the effect of these words on the husband ?
2 : Why was he surprised ?
3 : What did he say at last ?
4 : What reason did his wife give ?
5 : Who seemed to have more comforts ?
6 : How was the existence of the two women different ?
7 : When did the woman say she was starting out for her father's house ?
8 : What request did the husband make to her ?
9 : Why did he make a request for more time ?
10 : How much time did the wife give him ?
D1 : How much money did the man take from his bank ?
2 : What did he do when it was night time ?
E1 : What did the wife say to the husband three months later ?
2 : Why was she not going back to her father ?
3 : Why didn't the poor family seem to be living as well as before ?
F1 : How is a man's money used up when he is very poor and there is very little hope of his ever becoming well-off ?
2 : How does he make his existence brighter ?
3 : How would the man's ways be changed if he had some money in the bank ?
4 : In what way was the poor man making better use of his money now ?
G1 : What do we see from all this ?
2 : Are we all able to put by some money ?
3 : What is the most important thing to do ?
4 : Why is it important to make a start ?
5 : What is another reason for putting by money ?

Seatwork

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :* limit, shock, violent, natural, rule, conscious, observation, condition, addition, offer, thought, mind, memory.

1. This is the place from which we keep a watch over enemy troops. This is an..............................post.
2. The man was in a bad..............................He was unconscious and his breathing was very quick.
3. There is a..............................that no-one may have a smoke in this room.
4. The wind was so..............................that it took the boat far out to sea.
5. There is a..............................to the amount of work which a man is able to do in a day.
6. When I saw how ill he was I got a..............................
7. Were you..............................that the enemy was all round you ?
8. It is very..............................for a young man to be in love with a young woman.
9. The soldier made an..............................to go and put the enemy machine-gun out of action.
10. Of late there has been another..............................to my family. I have seven boys now.
11. If you are not able to give me the name of your last C.O. you have a very bad..............................
12. He never does anything without..............................
13. You are unhappy. Something is troubling your ....
14. I have no..............................of the letter which you say you sent me.

B. *Put the right word in the spaces :*

1. He will..............................a shock when he sees the newspapers tomorrow.
2. You will..............................your father a shock if you do that.
3. The news..........................a shock to me.
4. Are you conscious..............................what you are doing ?
5. The pain..him unconscious.
6. He..............................conscious again after ten minutes.
7. These are the conditions..............................which I will give you a job.
8. What was your reason..............................going there ?
9. This jewel is valued..................................500 rupees.
10. It was a hard question. The man had to.................... much thought to it.
11. When I went in I saw that the man was.......................... deep thought.
12. That is the question to which you have to.................... thought.
13. ....my suggestion in your mind.
14. Do not let my suggestion go..............................of your mind.
15. He has a good memory..names.
16. I have no memory..............................what you said at the meeting.
17. Memories of his school-days..............................back to him.
18. You have to....................................to a decision quickly.
19. ....a note of everything you see on a bit of paper.
20. I........................no idea that I was talking to a king.

Unit 74: Akbar The Great



A. Some time back you were given the story of Asoka, who was one of the greatest kings of whom we have record. There was another king in India who made as great a name for himself as Asoka. This was Akbar the Great. Akbar became emperor of India more than 1500 years after Asoka, and so we have a much greater knowledge of the history of Akbar's rule than that of the rule of Asoka.

B. The birth of Akbar took place not in the palace of an emperor but in the house of a very poor man, somewhere in the middle of the great wasteland of Rajputana. It was at a time when his father Humayun was attempting to get away from his enemies. In those days, when a queen gave birth to a baby, rewards were given to the chief officers who were present at the time. But Humayun was flying from his enemies, and he had no money or jewels to give to his soldiers and servants. All he had, the story goes, was a bottle of 'scent' (sweet smelling liquid). When the bottle was opened the air all round became full of a sweet smell. Turning to his soldiers Humayun said, "As the sweet smell of the scent is all over this place, so let the name of my son be all over the earth." Humayun's hopes came true. The baby whose birth took place in a poor man's house in a wasteland became one of the greatest emperors of India.

C. Why have writers of history given him the name Akbar the Great? He was, in the first place, a great soldier. With a small army he overcame, one after another, the rulers of Delhi, the Punjab, Rajputana, Bengal, Gujerat and Ahmednagar, so that at the end of his rule he had under his authority all the men and women living from Kabul in the north to Ahmednagar in the south and from Karachi in the west to Calcutta in the east. It was he who was responsible for building up the Moghul Empire, and he was himself the first of the Moghul emperors.

D. Akbar was a very strong man and was able to go on working for a very long time without getting tired. Unlike his father he was not a lover of pleasure but was greatly interested in the well-being of those over whom he was ruling. He was, in fact, fired by a great desire to do good to the nation over which he had authority. The sort of men whom he put in positions of power and authority were kind-hearted and able men who, like their king, had only one desire, and that was to do good to everyone who came under their authority. When Akbar became king he saw that some of the ways of the men of those days were in need of change.



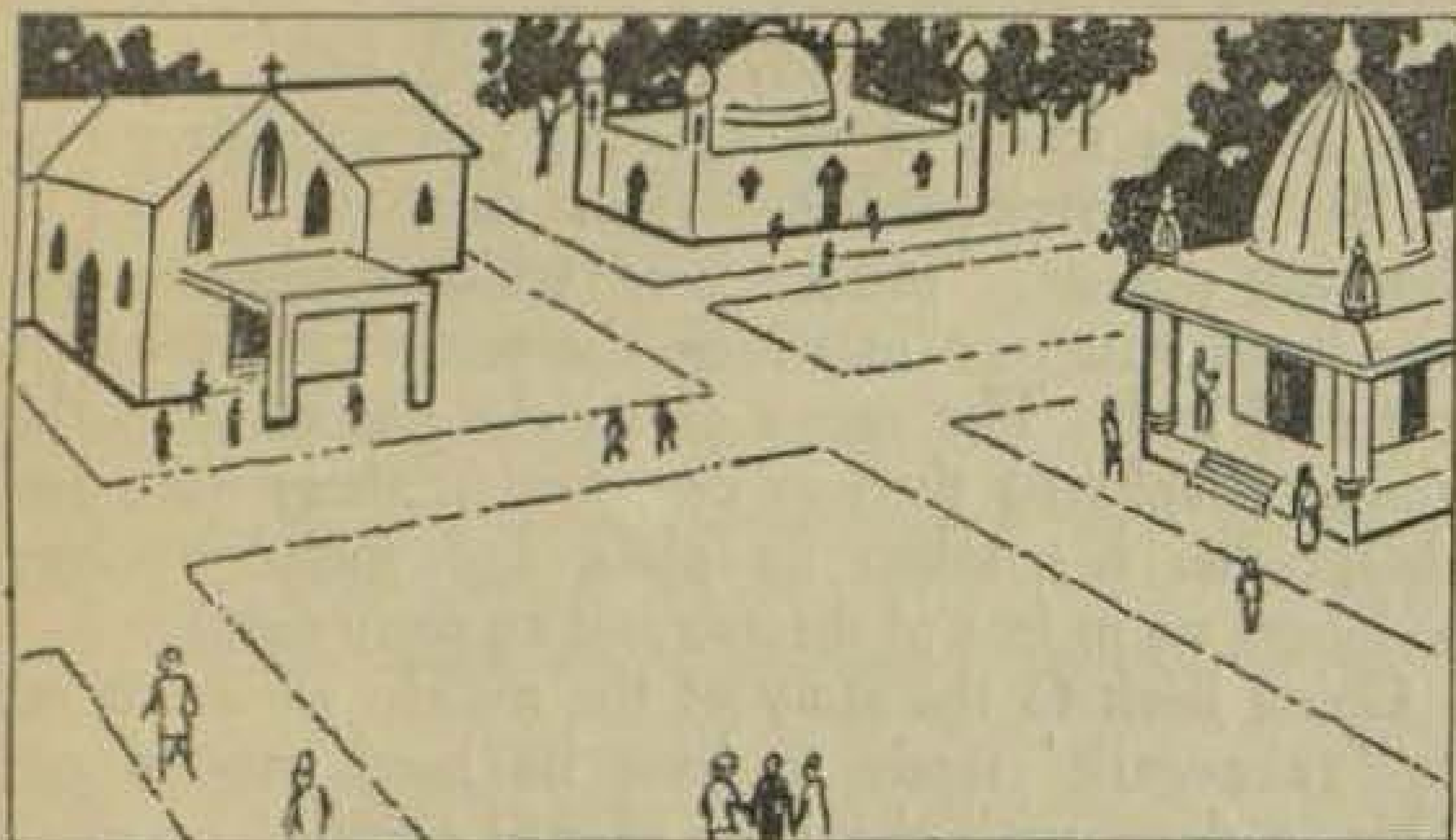
E. For example, there was 'sati.' On the death of a man the woman to whom he was married was burned to death with the man's body. It is true that sometimes the woman was quite ready to put herself to death, by jumping into the fire. There were some women who had no desire to go on living after the death of their loved one. But frequently a woman was burned to death, with the body of her husband, by force. Akbar made up his mind to put a stop to this cruel system. He made a law that no woman whose husband was dead was to be put to death against her desire.

F. Another foolish thing which the men of those days did was to get their boys and girls married when they were very young—that is to say, when they were five or six years old. Akbar did not make a law against this, but he did everything in his power to make it clear to everybody what a foolish thing it was to get their sons and daughters married when they were very young.

G. Akbar took a great interest in still another question. In the India of those days (and among certain groups even today) a woman whose husband was dead did not generally get married a second time. This was very cruel to the woman, specially if she was very young. Akbar went out of his way to say that it was wrong to have a low opinion of a woman who got married a second time, and that she had as great a right to be happy as any other person.

H. Akbar made changes in the tax system of the country. Before Akbar's days the business of getting the taxes from the farmers was put in the hands of contractors. Taxes were not fixed; the contractors were free to get as much money from the farmers as was possible. The contractors had no care for the well-being of the men who did the farming; their business was to get as much money out of them as possible, if necessary by force. It was a very cruel system. And one of the first things which Akbar did was to put an

end to it. The contractors were sent away, every bit of property and the produce from it were measured with care and the amount of tax on every bit of land was fixed. In the place of contractors Akbar put a group of Government officers with fixed salaries. These officers were made responsible not only for getting together the taxes but for the well-being of the farmers as well. This is the most important change which Akbar made in the organization of the country. His system was so good that the British took it over when they became the rulers of India. And it is the same system which is in existence at the present time.



74

I. But Akbar was a great king not only because of the changes which he made in the tax system of the country but because of his kind and warm-hearted behaviour to men in general, friends or enemies. He made certain that his enemies were overcome, but he took care to see that they were not completely crushed. After a war he made every attempt to become friends with his enemies. Akbar was never rough or cruel to an enemy whom he had overcome in war.

J. In old days men all over the earth had an idea that it was right for a man to be cruel to men of other religions. Sometimes the men of one religion put a special tax on men of another religion. Sometimes they put them in prison. Sometimes they had their places of religion burned down, and sometimes they even put them to death. Today it seems very foolish to us for men to do such things to one another, only because they go to different places to say their prayers or say their prayers in a different way. In addition men of old days had a belief that it was not possible for men of different religions to go on living in complete harmony with one another. Today we are certain that this belief is wrong. In thousands of villages in India men of different religions make their homes, do their work, and go about their business in complete harmony with one another. And your experience in the Army has made it quite clear to you that Hindus, Muslims or Sikhs may go on living or fighting side by side like brothers in arms.

K. Among great rulers Akbar was one of the first to say that there was to be a feeling of love and not of hate between men of different religions. While he was ruling India men of all religions, Hindu, Muslim or Christian, had equal rights. Everyone was free to keep whatever religion seemed to him to be the true religion. No-one was forced to give a special tax to the government because of his religion. No-one was put to death because his religion was different from that of his ruler. It was because Akbar was good and kind to men of all religions that there was complete peace and harmony in the country, and the great mass of men and women gave Akbar their help and support. It was because of this that he was able to have a strong army and a great empire. And this is the chief reason why writers of history have given him the name Akbar the Great.

Seatwork

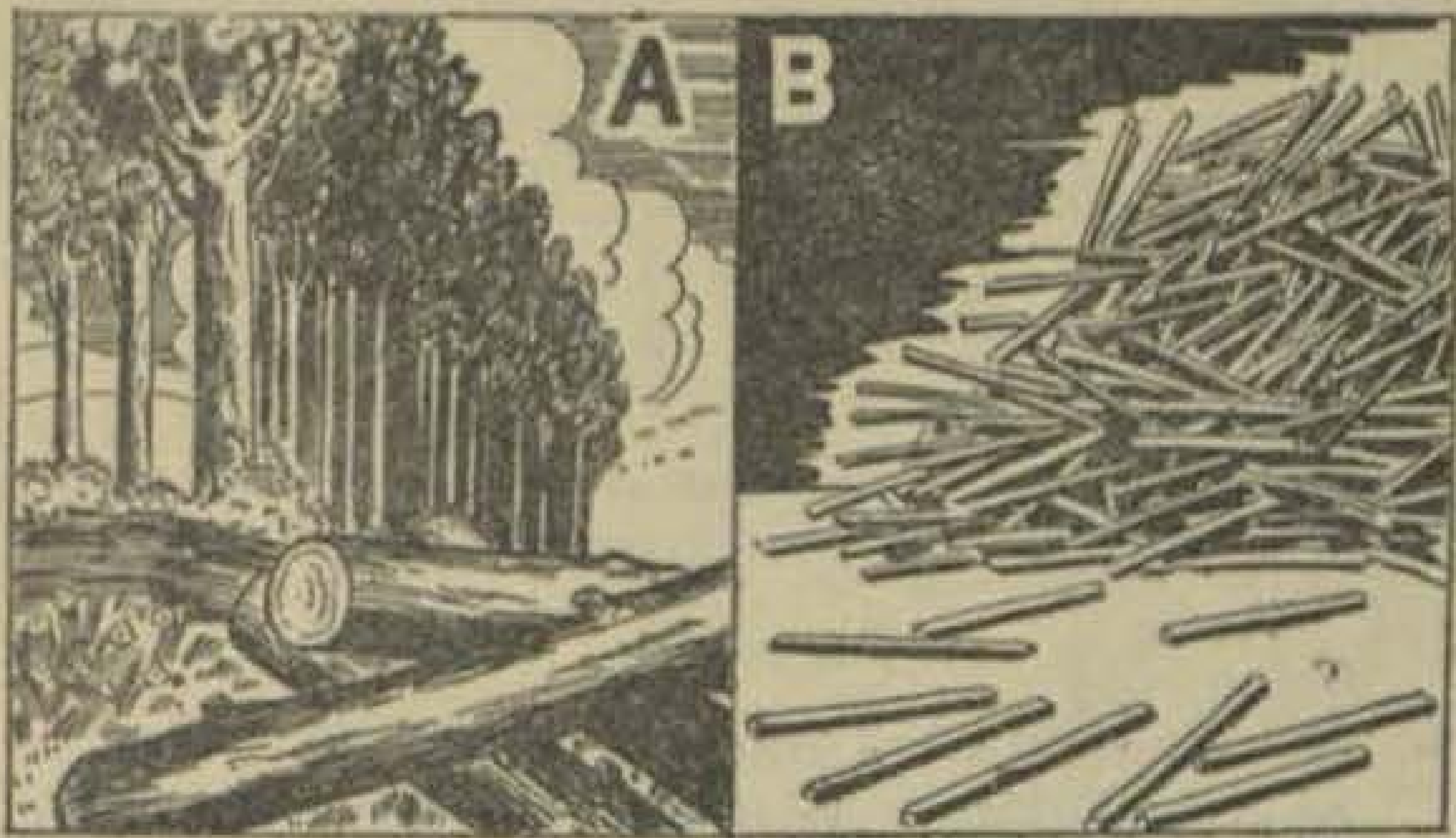
A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :*
control, digestion, adjustment, industry, physical, process, reaction, impulse, nerve, sex, male, female, tendency, behaviour, shame.

1. We are able to see it. It is a..........................thing.
2. What is the..........................by which we get oil out of a cocoanut.
3. A pain in the stomach may be a sign that something is wrong with the man's..........................
4. ....are generally stronger than..........................
5. I was not able to keep my feelings under..........................
6. I was so angry that I had an..........................to give the man a blow.
7. The muscles are joined to the brain by..........................
8. With great..........................they may get the building complete in less than two weeks.
9. Did she say anything ? What was her.......................... to the news ?
10. Some men have a..........................to be late.
11. The prisoner's..........................was so good that they let him out of prison very quickly.
12. Have you no.......................... ? Why do you say something which is not true ?

B. *Put the right word in the spaces :*

1. She..........................no control..........................her servants.
2. The foreman was unable to..........................the workers..........................control.
3. Mid-way between the house and the office the horse..........................out of control.
4. The police are..........................control.......................... the town.
5. The military are..........................complete control ....the town.
6. He is..........................an adjustment in the dynamo.
7. The digestion..........................vegetables is quicker than the digestion ....meat.
8. Some foods are bad..........................the digestion.
9. Digestion of food..........................place chiefly in the stomach.
10. What was your reaction..........................his suggestion ?

Unit 75: The Story Of A Match



A. You take a match, you make a light, there is a flame, the flame goes out—and that is the end of a gripping story, the story of a match.

Before its birth this little match was part of a tree, a special tree, the Simul tree. It is a very common tree in West and Central India, one of the great number of different sorts of tree with which this land is covered.

The first step is to get the tree cut down and cleared of leaf and branch. It is from the great stem of the tree, straight and strong, that the little match is produced.

B. Getting the trees cut up into smaller and still smaller parts is as simple as cutting up a banana—when you have the right machines ready to hand. And with a specially designed instrument it's as simple to get the hard thick skin off the tree as it is to get the skin off a banana.

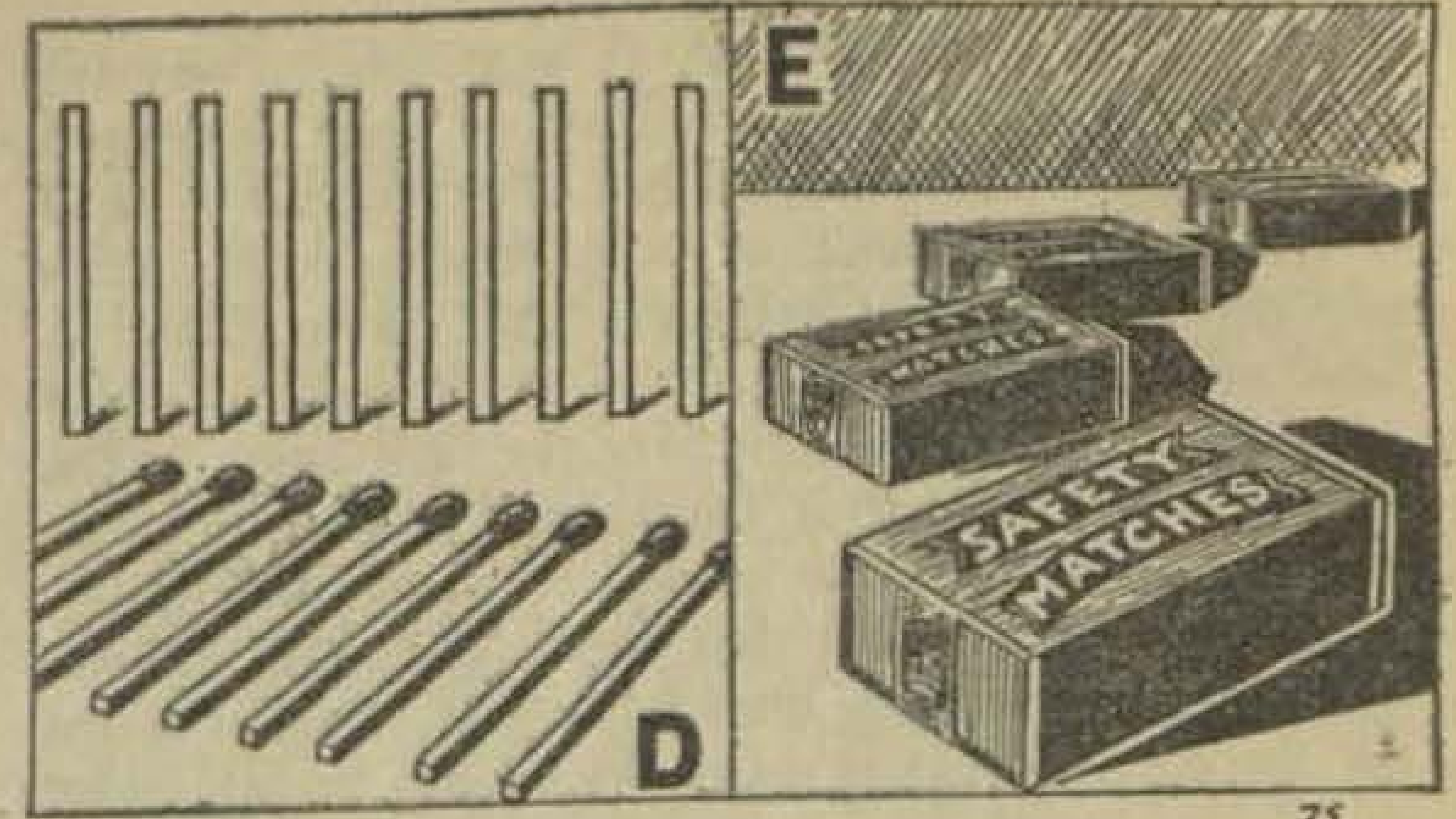
The wood is quite different by the time it comes from the cutting machine. It comes rolling out as paper would, and as thin as the match will be.

This is cut up into sticks which, for the first time, have the look, in form and size, of the match which we see and make use of every day. At this stage we may say that the match has, in fact, at last come into existence.

C. But before it is of any use it has to go through a great number of processes, being pushed and rolled here, pulled and sorted there. First comes a push on to a tray, where the stick is heated and made dry. Then it is transported to another machine whose work it is to keep back sticks of the wrong size. The right-sized sticks go through the holes, the wrong-sized are still in the tray on top.

As a rule it is necessary to have workers on the lookout for errors in a machine, but here we see a machine doing this work, one machine looking out for slips in another.

D. Our match, now the right size, goes down a pipe, and is pushed on to another 'cake-walk.' Here it gets another shake-up, the purpose of which is to get the matches parcelled together into groups of equal size.



Now the match is ready to have its head put on. The head is made of phosphorus and sulphur. Up to 50 years back match-workers went in fear of a shocking disease, 'phossy jaw,' which made the jaw (the bone structure in which the teeth are fixed) go soft and bad. The cause of all the trouble was the white phosphorus then in use, but in these days red phosphorus has taken its place and match-workers no longer go in fear of disease and an early death.

Going back to the story of the match, we see it on its 'cake-walk' ready to have its head slipped on. This is done with the help of still another complex machine, and the match is complete.

E. Now for the box to put it in. This is produced as quickly and as expertly as the match itself, machines turning out thousands and tens of thousands of boxes at a time.

Now and then a hand may come into the picture, but not very frequently because match-making is one of India's most important industries, and machines are made use of at every stage for every part of the work, however small and simple.

F. This is an important industry to India for two reasons; first because the tax-band which is broken on opening a match-box is a record of the fact that Government makes four crores of rupees every year in taxes on matches; and, secondly, match-making is an 'export trade' in a country whose exports are still small in number. No matches come into India, but millions of matches are sent from India to other countries, and with the money we are able to get other things in exchange.

A1: What was this little match a part of before its birth?
2: What name do we give this tree?
3: Where is this tree very common?
4: What is the first step in the making of a match?
5: From what part of the tree is the match made?
6: What is the stem of the Simul tree like?

B1: How is the tree cut up into small parts?
2: Is it a complex process? How simple is it?
3: How is the hard thick skin got off the tree?
4: Is it a complex process? How simple is it?

5: What is the wood like when it comes from the cutting machine ?
6: What is the wood cut up into ?
7: What sort of look have these sticks ?
C1: Are the sticks of any use at this stage ?
2: Where are the sticks heated and made dry ?
3: What comes after this ?
4: How are the right-sized and wrong-sized sticks separated from one another ?
5: How are errors in a machine generally put right ?
6: How are errors in this machine put right ?
D1: Where does the match go now ?
2: What is it pushed on to ?
3: What is the purpose of the shake-up which the matches get here ?
4: What is the match now ready for ?
5: What is the head made of ?
6: What sort of disease did workers go in fear of 50 years back ?
7: What effect did this disease have on a man's jaw ?
8: What was the cause of the trouble ?
9: Why don't match-workers go in fear of the same disease today ?
10: How is the head of the match slipped on ?
E1: How are match-boxes produced ?
2: How quickly are they produced ?
3: Is the work done by hand or by machine ?
4: Does a hand ever come into the picture ?
F1: How much money does the Government of India make in taxes on matches ?
2: What do we do with a part of the matches which are produced in this country ?
3: Why is the money which we get for our matches from other countries important ?

Seatwork

A. *Put the right word from this list in the spaces :*
event, comparison, attraction, belief, comfort, design, chance, serious, crime, relation.

1. They say your friend was married yesterday. Were you present at the.......... ?
2. Girls have no..........for him.
3. He is in a..........condition ; the doctors have given up hope.
4. It is a..........to put a man to death.
5. There is more..........in sleeping on a soft bed than on a hard one.
6. First-class ' passengers ' get more..........on a train than third-class passengers.
7. A curtain with a..........on it is more beautiful than a curtain without a..........on it.
8. There is a..........between a man's pay and his position.
9. If you make a..........between the two men you will see who is better.
10. My friend has a..........that there are men like us on one of the stars.
11. He has no brains ; he became well-off by..........

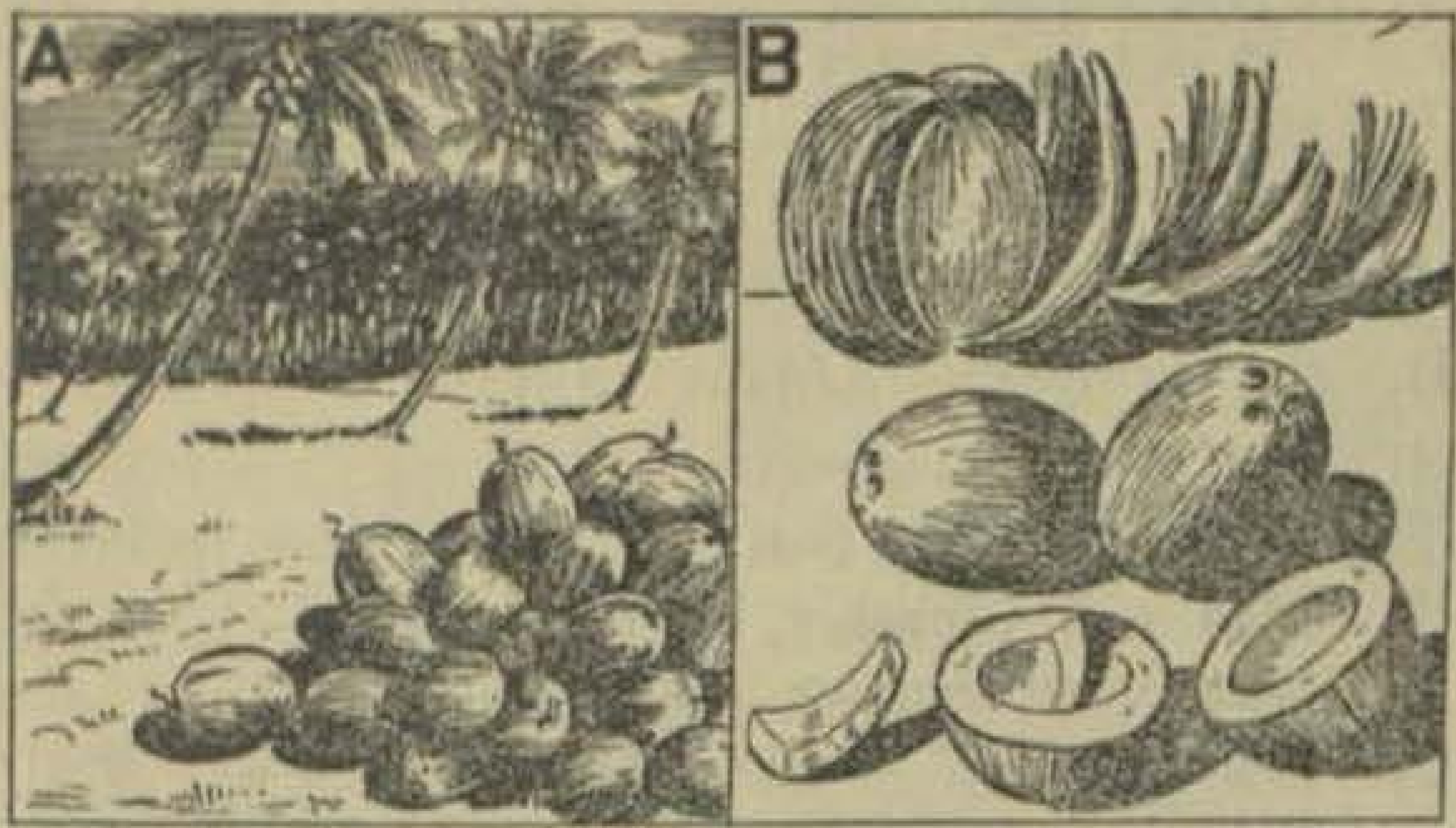
B. *Put the right word in the spaces :*

1. The man is well-off..........present.
2. ....the past all work was done by hand.
3. Men will probably be happier..........the future than they are..........present.
4. Halva..........no attraction.......... my boy.
5. There is attraction..........two magnets.
6. The man was very sad ; his friend came to.......... him comfort.
7. Four of her sons had come to their death in the war but she..........comfort..........the thought that at least one of her sons was still living.
8. My suggestion..........his approval.
9. The father has not..........his approval ....his son's decision.
10. There is a business connection..........the two men.
11. How did you..........a connection between the two points ?
12. He is not serious..........his work.
13. He..........last year's competitions very seriously.
14. You are very regular..........your work.
15. It was..........chance that the man got a good job.
16. Every sepoy..........a chance.......... becoming an N.C.O. if he does well.
17. ....him a chance. He is an able man.
18. I did not..........a chance to give my opinion at the meeting.
19. We are dependent..........Ceylon.......... our oil.

C. *Put these statements differently, without changing their sense, by using the words in the brackets :*

1. Give me a full account. (detail)
2. If you give it a pull it becomes longer. (expansion)
3. I am greatly interested in games. (attraction)
4. She came and said kind and loving words to me. (comfort)
5. He said that what I had done was right. (approval)
6. Are the two places joined ? (connection)
7. He comes here every day at a fixed time. (regularly)

Unit 76: The Tree Of Gold



76

A. Two or three hundred years back a man from the West made a journey through India. He took back to his country a story about a tree which gave food and drink and everything for the needs of man. Everyone said his story was false. But it was not false. In fact he had given less than a full account of the tree, because it gives us not only food and drink but other things as well—cords, floor-coverings, oil, wine, vinegar (which is the acid made from wine), and a number of other things in addition, all of everyday use. Because it gives such a number of things of such great value it is named 'The Tree of Gold.'

B. This is the story of that strange tree. You may see it in Travancore in South India, a beautiful land of bright sunlight and green leaves. First the fruit is cut, and then the outer cover taken off. After that the nuts inside are broken open, thousands and thousands of them. The inside of the nuts is taken out with great care and kept in the sun for a day or two till it is dry. The nut is then cut up into small bits by delicate hands, and after more drying it is taken away to be crushed.



76

C. In almost every little house in Travancore you will come across the same process for crushing the nuts, the same crushing machine, working to the same design, as unchanging as the circles made by the feet of the cows while they go round and round turning the machine, as unchanging as the everyday existence of the men who made it. The machine is designed in the form of a great hollow vessel, with an instrument something like a hammer which keeps going up and down, crushing the nuts and driving out the oil. When all the oil has been got out, the meat of the nut, which is good food for animals, is given to the cows ; so that, in addition to all the other things which it will do, this surprising tree becomes the cows' grassland !

D. Now for the outside covering. From the boats and from carts the outside coverings of the nuts are taken and put into round nets which are kept, fixed in position by cords, in the backwaters of Travancore's thousand waterways. They may not be put simply anywhere—the water-field where the covers are put to keep wet has need for a quietly moving current, so that the threads in the cover of the nut may get the gold-brown colour which is a sign of good condition. Water-fields are let out like land, and, as with land, families may be the owners. Masses of earth and stones are put on the covers till they go down under the water. There they are kept for ten months.

E. The outer cover of the cocoanut is a network of rough hairs. Getting the hairs broken down is hard work, very hard work with hands and arms—and it's done by women. The sexes are certainly equal when it comes to this sort of work. The strongest hairs are sorted out, and then they are twisted into long threads, as if they were cotton. When the hair is made into thread, which is then named "coir," it is taken to market. Boys and girls take it there, in little boats which are small enough to be controlled by them quite safely. From the market the coir is taken to great mills, where it is made into cloth and worked into thick netting. It has designs painted on it and is then made into floor-coverings and into bags. What is not used goes into beds.



76

F. Let's get back to the simpler things, the things they did with this surprising tree before the days of machines—and still do. Wet leaves twisted together make a roof for simple houses which will keep the rain and sun out. Brushes such as we see every day in India are made out of the strong stems of the leaves. The

hard wood part of the nut makes good cheap material for burning.

G. Well, now we have only the upright stem of the tree unused. It is not strong wood, but it makes a first rate natural support for a house, and it's not a bad bridge if you are able to keep your balance. But you had better not make an attempt to get across the bridge after drinking what is made from the flowers—it's a wine named "toddy"! If you are against strong drink, give it another name—vinegar—because that is what it becomes if you keep it in the earth for 14 days.

H. Then there is the oil. That is used in making soap—one of the things which India is learning to make for herself—and a good cheap soap (it has to be very cheap) will do more for India's 'hygiene' than all the wall-advertisements and long and heated discussions on earth. Cocoanut oil for the hair is better and safer than paraffin or any other such oil. Cocoanut oil will give a light for boys to do their home-work after school hours, while mother is cooking with the same oil in another room. Some of the fruit cut up small and mixed with *curries* gives a very delicate taste. And last of all the tree becomes a milk bar, because of the milk inside the nut!

So the man was right about the strange tree he had seen in the Indies. Not a part of the tree is without its uses. It is surprising that it has been named the cocoanut tree—after the one substance it does not give, cocoa. Let's keep to the other name—the Tree of Gold.

A1 : When did the West first get an account of the 'Tree of Gold'? How?
2 : What story did he take back to his country?
3 : Of what use was this tree to men?
4 : What did everyone say about his story?
5 : What different things does this tree in fact give us?
6 : Why is this tree named the 'Tree of Gold'?

B1 : Where may you see this tree?
2 : What sort of land is Travancore?
3 : What is first taken off the fruit?
4 : What is then done to the nuts inside?
5 : Where is the inside of the nuts then kept?
6 : How long is it kept in the sun?
7 : How is the nut cut up into small bits?
8 : Where is it taken away after more drying?

C1 : Are the nuts crushed by men or by machine?
2 : How are these machines turned?
3 : Are all machines for crushing the nuts of the same design or of a different design?
4 : What is the form of the machine?
5 : What is the instrument for crushing the nuts like?
6 : To whom is the meat of the nut given when all the oil has been got out?
7 : Why is it given to cows?
8 : So what may we say this tree is to a cow?

D1 : Where is the outer covering of the nuts put?
2 : Where are the nets kept?
3 : How are the nets kept fixed in position?
4 : Why are the outer coverings put in a water-field?
5 : What sort of water-field is needed for this purpose?
6 : What sort of colour do these coverings have to get?
7 : What is a gold-brown colour a sign of?
8 : Who are the owners of these water-fields?
9 : What do the owners do with their water-fields?

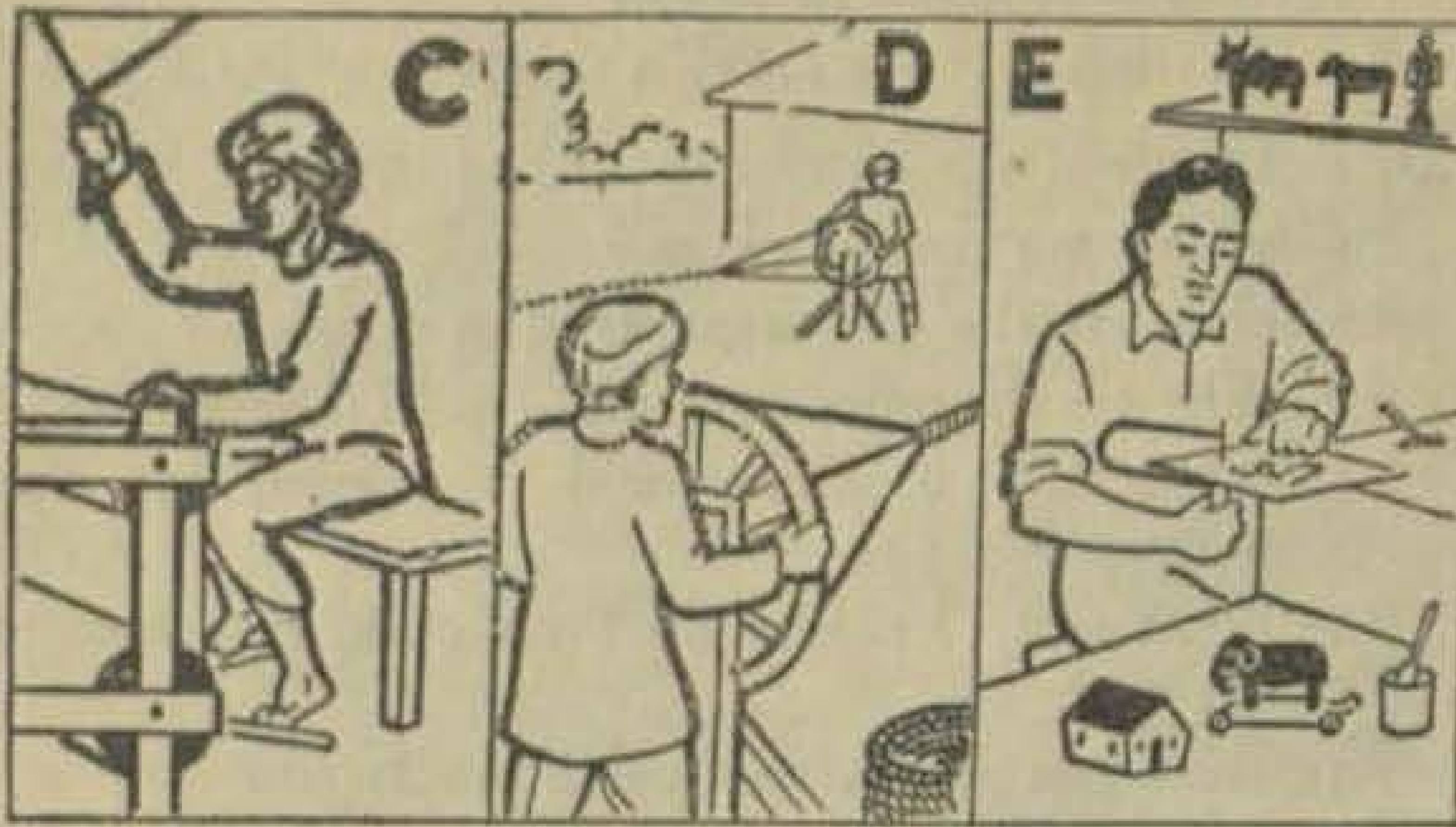
E1 : What is the outer cover of a cocoanut like?
2 : Is the work of getting the hairs broken down hard or simple?
3 : How is this work done?
4 : By whom is it done?
5 : Who do this work better—the men or the women?
6 : Which hairs are taken out?
7 : What do they do to these hairs then?
8 : What name do we give the hair when it is made into thread?
9 : Who takes the coir to market?
10 : How is it taken?
11 : How small are these boats?
12 : Where is the coir taken from the market?
13 : What do they do with the coir in the great mills?
14 : What are painted on it?
15 : What other things are made from coir?

F1 : What are wet leaves of this tree used for?
2 : What are brushes made out of?
3 : What makes good cheap material for burning?

G1 : Is the stem of the tree strong wood?
2 : What two things may it be used for?
3 : What is made from the flowers of this tree?
4 : How is this wine turned into vinegar?

H1 : What is the oil used in?
2 : What sort of oil is best for the hair?
3 : Of what use is this oil for boys when they come to do their home-work?
4 : Of what use is it to their mother?
5 : What is the fruit itself sometimes used for?
6 : How does the tree become a milk bar?
7 : Is there any part of the tree which has no value?
8 : Why is 'cocoanut' a surprising name?
9 : What is the best name for the tree?

Unit 77 : India's Cottage Industries



77

A. What are you going to do after your release? Some of you will probably take a job in a factory. Others will go back to their farms and, with the knowledge which they got while they were in the Army, make use of better ways of farming to get more produce from their land. But there are still others who come from the villages but who have no farms to go back to. What are they going to do? Some have been given a special training in some industry or other, like wood-work or leather-work, to which we have given the name cottage industries. There is no need for these men to have any fears about their future. All the materials, such as wood, leather, stone, clay or 'fibre', which are necessary for starting a cottage industry are cheap and ready to hand in a village. They will have little or no trouble in taking up an industry in which there is a good chance of making a profit. Let us see what different ways of making a living are open to them.

B. There is, first, the making of cloth out of yarn—'weaving,' as the process is named. This is India's oldest and most common industry. There is certainly great competition between the cloth made in mills and the cloth made in village homes. Mill-cloth is cheaper and sometimes smoother than cloth made by hand. But there is still a very wide market for hand-made cloth in the villages of India. A great number of Indian villagers are not even conscious of the existence of mill-cloth. Certainly great numbers of them are of the opinion that cloth made by hand is stronger than cloth made on a machine. These will go on using hand-made cloth for a very long time to come.

C. Cloth made in a village home is in fact made on a very simple sort of machine named a 'hand-loom.' A hand-loom is very cheap (about 40 rupees) and may be used for over sixty years. A man who is not very expert at the work is able to make four to eight annas a day on a good loom. If the hand-loom is placed in an open space with only a roof on top but no walls at the sides the work will be clean and healthy.

D. Then there is rope-making. Rope is needed in almost every village home. So there is certain to be a wide market for rope in every village. It is best to make the rope on a machine. The fibre may be twisted more quickly with a machine than by hand. A rope-making machine and the necessary fibre may be had for less than fifteen rupees, and a man who is well-trained and hard-working is able to make about four to eight annas a day.

E. Woodwork is still another cottage industry which an ex-soldier may take up. The sort of wood-work which is done in a village today is very rough and simple. With some care ex-soldiers will certainly be able to make seats, tables or boxes which are stronger and more beautiful. The sort of woodwork from which most profit may be made is the making of playthings for boys and girls. The wood may be got very cheaply from the sort of boxes which are used for putting things in when they are taken from one place to another. The cheap playthings which we get from the bazaar are generally made of tin or celluloid, and so are broken very readily. And their sharp ends are sometimes a danger to little hands and feet. The sort of playthings in which boys and girls take the greatest pleasure are animals on wheels, carts, seats and tables. There is a great need for them in a village home, and whoever makes them is certain to get a good reward for his work.

F. From a box priced twelve annas and paints priced at ten annas an expert workman will be able to make playthings valued at three rupees. The instruments which are necessary for making them are very simple—a hammer, a plane, chisels, a 'saw' and a knife. And all the material which is necessary is some wood, some paint, some nails and screws, and one or two bits of broken glass for making the playthings smooth. The playthings have to be strong and well-designed and colours are to be used freely.

G. The making of 'mats' is still another industry which is open to ex-soldiers. The leaves of palm trees are very good for making mats. The sort of mats which are made in villages today are very rough. Colour is not used and designs are not put on the mats. The mats are not beautiful. That is why the number of mats now in use is very limited. The material to be used is palm leaves, which are very strong; if they are stitched together with thick cord the mats may be used for a long time. And if the mats are made beautiful by the use of colour and design there is certain to be a wide market for them.

H. Then there is soap-making. Soap is very much in request, and because oil, which is the chief material for making soap, is produced on farms, it is natural for soap-making to be a village industry. It is not very hard to get a living by making soap, specially if you are a good businessman. All the materials which are necessary for making soap, such as iron basins, vessels for the oil, waxed paper for covering the soap with oils, washing soda and colours may be had very cheaply. Colours will have to be used to make the soaps beautiful,

and when the cakes of soap are ready they will have to be covered in paper with care.



77

I. Men who have no farms to go back to will have to take up one of the cottage industries we have been talking about to get a living. But even for those whose chief business is farming cottage industries will be of great use as a 'sideline' or as part-time work. A farmer's income is very small even in normal times. To be able to have even the simplest comforts he will have to have a much greater income. A very important question in village 'uplift' is how the farmer's income may be increased. This is not all. For about four months in a year there is no work for him to do on the farm; he is completely free. If he does some sort of work while he is free he will not only be able to make good use of his time but he will be able to make some money as well. But the cottage industries we have been talking about are not of much use to a farmer, because no-one is able to do woodwork and so on without a certain amount of training. The regular farmer will have to take up a different sort of industry which is very much like farming—such as vegetable or fruit gardening or keeping bees or fowls, or keeping cows and making butter and cheese. This is the sort of part-time work which he will be able to do best.

J. A stretch of land forty feet long and thirty feet wide is all which is needed for a vegetable garden. From a garden of this size it is possible to get enough vegetables for one family for five months. The garden will have to be well cared for. If it is not, the amount of produce will be very small. The earth will have to be well broken up with a spade, and cowdung or other good fertilizers will have to be put in. The fruit-trees which will be of most use are probably *papayas* or *guavas.* In the rains the water has to be drained away, but in the winter the trees will have to be watered. Other sorts of seeds which may be put in are lime-seeds. A five-year-old lime tree will give two hundred limes a year. If the tree is well watered it is possible to get fruit almost every month in the year. It is generally possible to make more money out of a fruit or vegetable garden than out of a field, if equal attention is given to it.

K. A farmer may keep a number of farm animals like cows or *buffaloes* or sheep or goats. If he takes good care of his cow or buffalo he may be able to get 2000 lbs. of milk every year from it. A cow is generally better to keep than a buffalo because a cow has less food. In addition cows' milk is healthier than buffaloes' milk and has a much wider market. If a farmer has not enough money to keep a cow he may keep a goat. It is wise to keep only the better sort of goats, which give five to six pounds of milk a day. Goat's milk is healthier than cow's milk, specially for young boys and girls. The best reason for keeping a cow or a buffalo or a goat is that a farmer's boys and girls themselves have to be given milk. The best food for boys and girls is milk, and a farmer has to make certain that there is enough milk to give them.

L. Keeping fowls for their eggs will probably be India's greatest cottage industry in the future. India is the true home of fowls. Weather conditions in India are the best for the growth of fowls. One does not have to have much money to keep them. And the market for eggs is certainly becoming wider and wider. A good hen (female fowl) which is well cared for will give 120 eggs a year. A farmer may get as much as ten rupees for 120 eggs. The price of the food needed for the hen will be less than four rupees, so that a farmer will be able to make a profit of at least six rupees on every hen which he keeps. It is wise for him to keep only the best sort of hens, which are able to give a great number of full-sized eggs. When eggs are used only for food it is better not to keep cocks (male fowls). If only hens are kept more eggs will be produced and they will not go bad for a very long time.

P1: What's the value of this bit of money?
S: Anna, two annas, four annas, eight annas, one rupee.

2: I am going to give up my (house). (It) (has) been valued at (2,000) rupees.
S: House: field, farm, property, garden, store, ornaments, jewels.

3: My friend has a bad memory for (faces).
S: Faces: colours, names, dates.

4: Is he to take a (job in a factory)? He is giving thought to the question.
S: Job in factory: job on farm, Government job, Army job, job on a ship, etc.

5: He is not able to keep his (men) under control.
S: Men: workers, servants, boys, girls, wife.

6: He has taken over control of the (supplies).
S: Supplies: medical corps, intelligence, ordnance.

7: The (post office) (is) controlled by the Government.
S: Post office: telegraph office, railways.

8: This (building) was designed by an engineer in the Army.
S: Building: bridge, road, structure, machine, weapon.

9: He is talking of (opening) a (recreation room). He has the designs ready.
S: Recreation room: club, reading room, playing field, co-operative society, co-operative farm, etc.

Unit 78 : Co-operative Societies



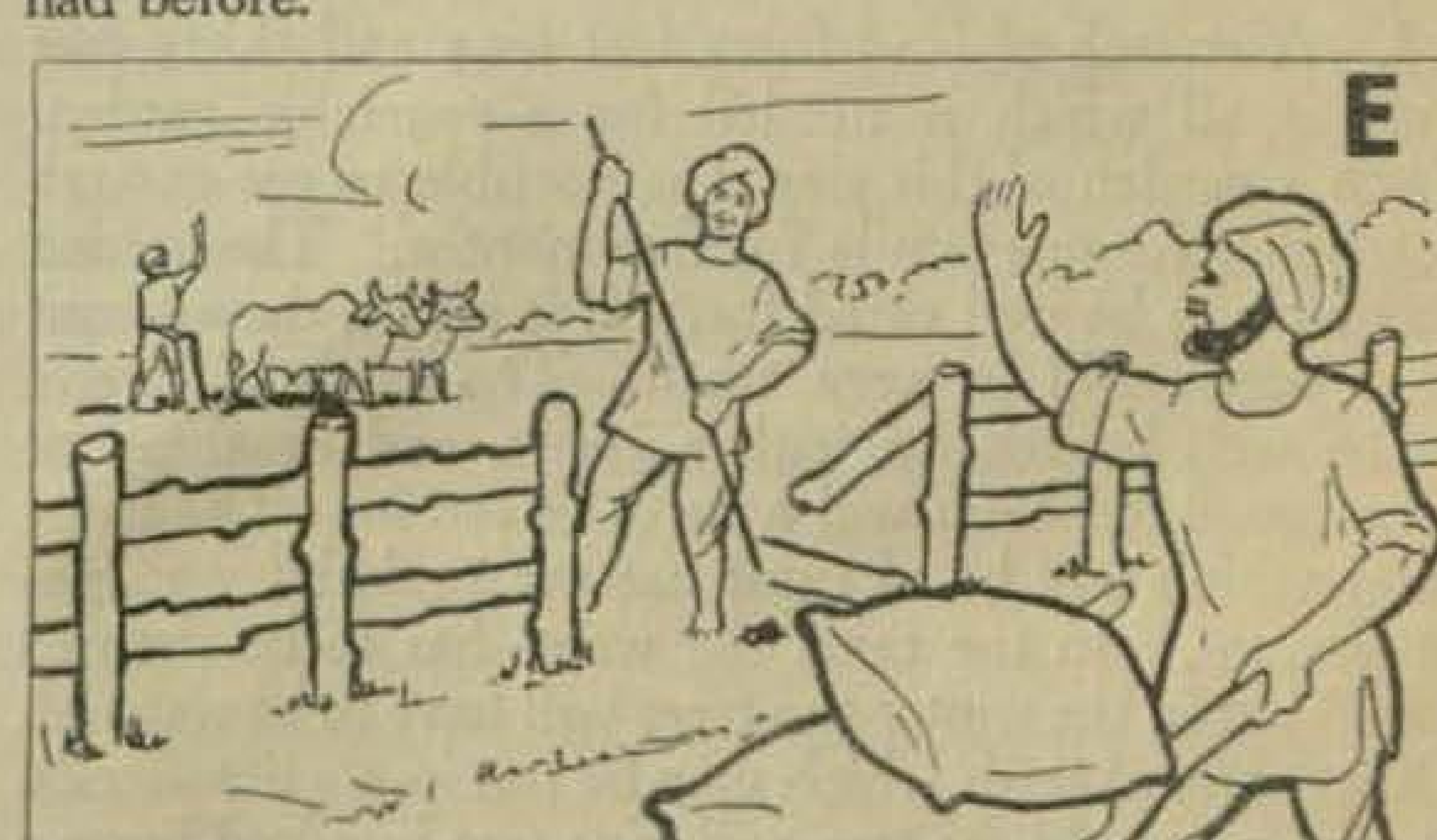
A. In a war the fighting forces of a country have to give help and support to one another. The army, the navy and the air force are in need of one another's help. If this help is not given it may not be possible to overcome the enemy. In the same way, when there is fighting on land, we see all the different branches of an army, like the infantry, the artillery, the signallers and supply corps, working together and helping one another. If they give one another help and support they may be able to overcome their enemies more quickly. That is why soldiers are specially trained in the art of working together for a common purpose, or 'co-operation' as it is sometimes named. If there is co-operation the army will be much stronger as a fighting force.

B. This is true not only in war but in peace as well. Working together two men will be able to do more and better work than when they are working separately. For example, when there is co-operation among villagers in farming their land they will be able to get more produce from it. If the villagers give one another help in marketing their produce they will be able to get a higher price for it. If they give one another help in getting money they will be able to get it at a cheaper rate of interest than if they go separately to a bania. Co-operation is necessary if our villages are to become better. It is this idea—the idea that if there is co-operation living conditions in the villages will become much better—which is responsible for a number of societies which have been started in the villages.



C. Among the most important of these societies are co-operative credit societies. A farmer has need for credit at the time of planting his seeds. He may not have enough money to get seeds or to give to his workmen. Or one of his bullocks may have come to a sudden end, and he may not have enough money to get a new one. Where does a farmer generally go when he has a need for money ? He goes to a bania. This is a very foolish thing to do, for a number of reasons. The rate of interest is very high. It is sometimes so high that even after years of regular payment a farmer may still be in debt to the bania. A second reason is that a bania generally gives money on the condition that it is given back in one payment, and not by making part payments over a certain time. A third reason is that accounts are kept only by creditors and not by debtors as well. The debtors have generally no knowledge of accounts and are frequently tricked by their creditors.

D. A co-operative credit society will give you money at a low rate of interest. The money may be given back by making part payments over a certain time. The secretary of the society, as well as the debtors, keeps a record of the debt and of the number of payments which have been made, so that no debtor is ever tricked. But the most important reason why it is wise to go only to a co-operative society for money is that a co-operative credit society gives you money only for certain purposes, such as getting a cow or a buffalo or a cart or good seeds or fertilizers or giving your boys and girls an education. If you get money for any of these purposes you will certainly be able to give it back, because you will then be using your money for the purpose of increasing the produce of your land. You will never be in debt. You will never go in fear of the bania or of the police. There will be no danger of the land being taken away from you. You will have a certain feeling of self-respect which you have never had before.



E. Co-operation is a help when we are in need of money. But co-operation is equally necessary if we are to make the best use of the land which we have. In other words, if we have co-operative credit societies why not have co-operative farms ? What is the position today ? As a rule a farmer has about four acres of land, which is itself frequently broken up into a number

of separate parts. These parts are sometimes so narrow that there is not enough space to take the plough in the opposite direction by turning the bullock round. This is a waste of man-power and of cattle-power. For four months in a year there is no work for a farmer to do. He is not able to make the best use of his bullocks. Because the land is cut up into a number of separate parts he has not enough money to put a wall round the fields to keep the plants safe from goats and sheep. He will not be able to make use of machines for the purpose of increasing the produce of his land, for machines are of little or no use on such small fields. And when water has to be taken to every one of these separate bits of land there are frequently violent arguments and sometimes open fighting.

F. Let us say that five farmers get tired of these conditions one day and make up their minds to get together. The low earth walls separating their fields are pulled down, and one great field of twenty acres is formed. The field becomes their common property, to be farmed together by all the five men. Will the position be better than before? Certainly. They will have no need for more than one pair of bullocks. They will have enough money to get good seeds and fertilizers and maybe some farming machines. There will be a certain division of work among the five men. Everyone will do the sort of work at which he is most expert. The outcome will be that together they will be able to get seven to eight times more than the amount of produce which they got before.

G. This is true wherever there is co-operation, wherever men get together for a common purpose. For example, farmers may get together for the purpose of getting seeds or fertilizers or cows or bullocks or even things like salt or sugar, cloth or kerosene. If they do they will get their things much more cheaply than if they get them from a storeman separately. In the same way farmers may get together for the purpose of marketing their produce. If they do they will get a much higher price for their grains, fruit, vegetables, milk or butter.

A1 : What have the different fighting forces to do in a war?
2 : Whose help are the army, navy and air force in need of?
3 : Why is this help important?
4 : What do the different branches of an army do when there is fighting on land?
5 : What is one word for the art of working together for a common purpose?
6 : Why is co-operation so important?

B1 : Are two men able to do more working together or working separately?
2 : Why is co-operation important for villagers?
3 : What is necessary if our villages are to become better?
4 : What idea is responsible for the number of societies which have been started in the villages?

C1 : Which are the most important of these societies?
2 : When has a farmer a need for credit?
3 : Why has he a need for credit at this time?
4 : Where does a farmer generally go when he has a need for money?
5 : What is one reason why this is a foolish thing to do?
6 : How high is the rate of interest sometimes?
7 : What is a second (a third) reason why it is foolish to go to a bania for money?
8 : What is the danger if debtors have no knowledge of accounts?

D1 : At what rate of interest will a co-operative credit society give you money?
2 : How may the money be given back?
3 : Why is no debtor ever tricked?
4 : What is the most important reason why it is wise to go only to a co-operative society for money?
5 : Why will you be able to give it back if you get money for any of these purposes?
6 : What will you never be in?
7 : What will you never go in fear of?
8 : What danger will there never be?
9 : What sort of feeling will you have?

E1 : Co-operation is a help when we are in need of money. But for what other purpose is co-operation equally necessary?
2 : How much land has a farmer as a rule?
3 : Is the land all in one stretch or is it broken up into a number of separate parts?
4 : How narrow are some of these parts?
5 : Why is this a waste of man-power (cattle-power)?
6 : Why has the farmer not enough money to put a wall round his fields?
7 : Why is he not able to make use of machines on his land?
8 : What is the danger when water has to be taken to every one of these separate bits of land?

F1 : How may one great field of twenty acres be formed out of five separate fields?
2 : What is one (another, a third) way in which the position will be better if the land is farmed together?
3 : What will be the outcome of all this?

G1 : For what other purposes may farmers get together?
2 : How will it be better if they do?

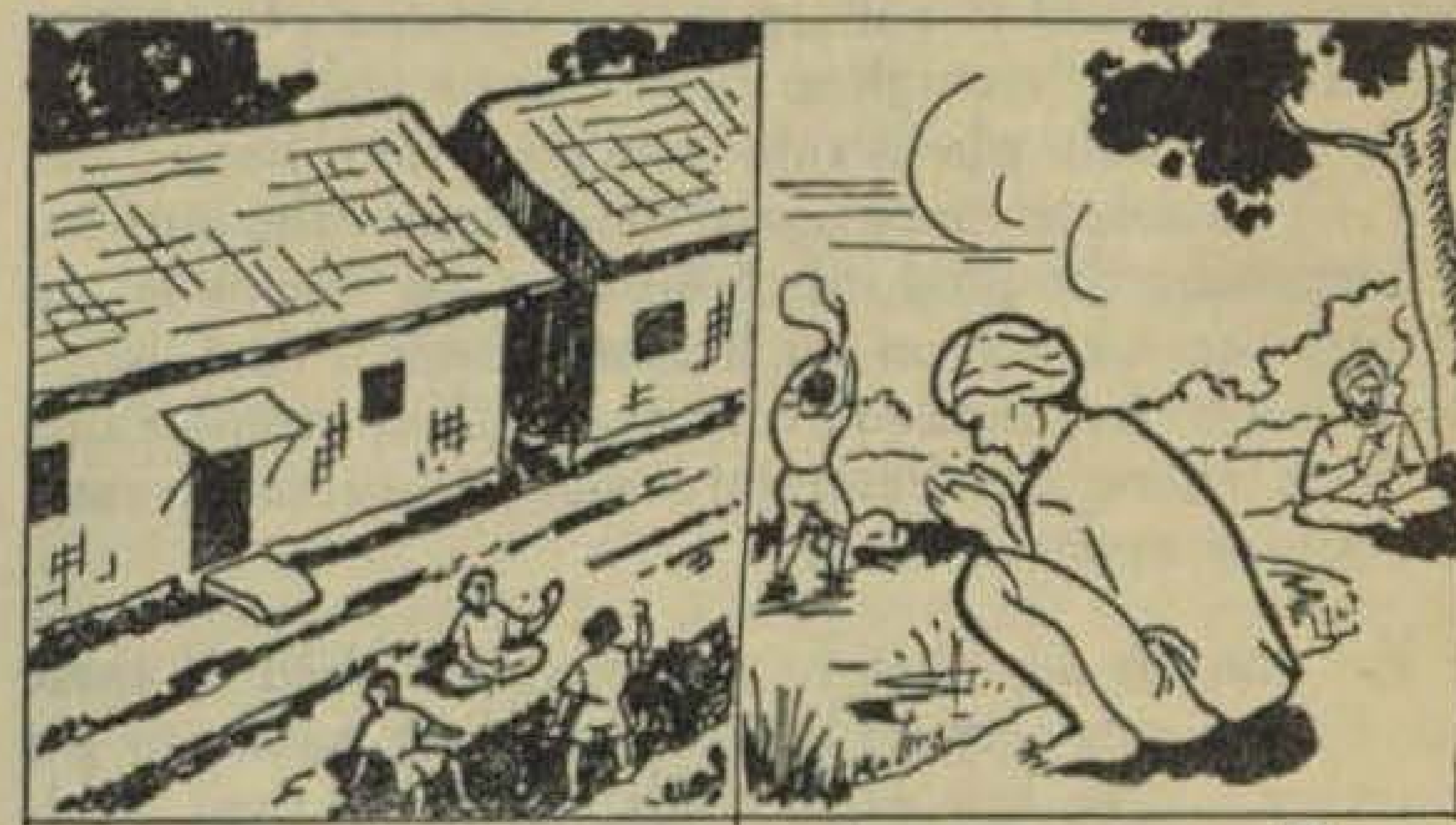
Unit 79 : Who Is Responsible ?



A. Some of you have been in the Army for four or five years, and now the time has come for you to go back to your villages. What has the Army done for you ? Under what sort of conditions have you been living all these years ? While you were at the front, fighting the enemy, you had a hard existence. But while you were at a military station or a training centre you had a much happier time. Your quarters were clean and healthy. They had high doors and wide windows. They were full of sunlight and air. Your dress was clean. Your food was good and healthy. Every day after tea you had games. You took care to keep your body and your equipment clean. Every day you gave your shirts and trousers a wash. Every night before your meal you probably had a bath. You took great care to keep yourself free from disease. You made use of a mosquito net to keep the mosquitoes away while you were sleeping. Whenever there was danger of a disease you had an inoculation. Whenever you were ill you saw a doctor without loss of time. You took great care to keep yourself strong and healthy.

B. You probably went to one of the Army schools while you were in station. You were given a knowledge of English ; you may have had a training in one of the cottage industries. You probably took part in discussions about village-uplift. When you were free you went to a recreation room where you saw the newspapers, had a game of table-tennis or took a seat in front of a radio and got some music. On Saturdays or Sundays you went to a picture or a play.

C. While the war was going on you probably went with your regiment to North Africa, Italy, France or England. You had a good look at the towns and villages in England and France. If you were in one of these villages for some time it is probable you saw how English villages were different from Indian villages. You might have seen the latest ways of farming, so that you now have a good idea how ploughing, planting, and cutting are to be done if the produce from our land is to be increased. Looking at an English village and an English farm you might have said to yourself, " Our villages might be quite as clean, healthy, bright and interesting if we took more care. Our land might give us the same amount of produce if we made use of better ways of farming. Someone has to make a start. What my friends and relations in the village are in need of is a guide." And maybe you are fired with a desire to make our villages clean, bright and happy.



D. What is the present condition of our villages ? What is a normal Indian village like ? A group of dark brown houses without light or air, a narrow dirty road full of pot-holes, an open drain in which water is ever present, a pond or tank used for washing as well as for drinking purposes, boys and girls playing about in the dust with little or no clothing on, and the men talking or smoking away the best hours of the day. There is nothing to make existence interesting. No games, no books, no newspapers, no radio, no cinema, no competitions, no chance for coming together for a discussion or an exchange of opinions. None of the comforts which you have had in the Army. Villages as they are today have little or no attraction for you.

E. If you are to be happy in your future villages there will have to be a change in them. You have been living in clean and healthy quarters, you have been having very good food, you have had experience of conditions in other countries. Naturally the villages from which you have come, with their dark, small, unhealthy houses and narrow, dirty streets, will have little or no attraction for you. But is there any good reason why things have to be as they are ? Why, for example, have our houses to be dark, small and unhealthy, and our streets narrow and dirty ? If you put this question to yourself you will see at once that there is no good reason why things have to be as they are. A complete change in the condition of the villages is possible. And it is you who will have to be the instruments of this change. Without doubt your work will be very hard. Quite a number of your old friends will have no belief in the newer ways ; they may not only give you no help ; they may be on the other side, working against you. They may even make trouble for you. The older men and the women who have not had your education or your experience will probably say that they are quite happy with things as they are, that they do not see any need for a change in their ways. When changes do come they will come very slowly, against the desire of

a great number of persons. In other words you will be fighting a different sort of war in your villages, against a different sort of enemy. The war will be quite as hard as the war against the Germans or the Japanese. But if you are strong, hard-working, without fear, if you do not give up hope when things seem very dark, you are certain to overcome your new enemies in the villages as you did the old enemy in the jungles.

F. How will you make a start with village uplift work when you go back to your homes? It is said that example is better than teaching. Your home, your farm, your way of living, will have to be an example to your friends and relations in the village. An ex-soldier is generally looked up to by his brother-villagers. They give him a certain amount of respect. He has been all over the earth; he has seen strange lands; he has greater knowledge and more experience; he has had an education. There will be a general tendency among his brother-villagers to do as he does. There is some value in giving short talks on how to keep healthy and having discussions about new ways of living, but the chief thing is to be an example to others living in the same village.

G. All these months you have been given a good training in village uplift work. You have now a clear idea of the sort of things which you will have to do to make our villages better. Money is not necessary for most of this work, so that you may make a start straight-away. There are other things which it is not possible to do without the help of the Government. Examples are the building of a canal, making a well, opening a dawakhana or a recreation centre, or the starting of a co-operative credit society. These are some of the things for which the Government is responsible. But what is the Government? The Government is formed from the representatives whom you send to the panchayat or the Council. They are your representatives; you have authority over them. So in a way you are responsible even for this part of the village-uplift programme. The future of your village is in your hands, not in the hands of any other person.

A1: How long have you been in the Army?
2: What sort of existence did you have while you were at the front?
3: When did you have a much happier time?
4: What were your quarters like?
5: What sort of doors and windows had they?
6: What were your quarters full of?
7: How was your dress (food)?
8: What did you have every day after tea?
9: What did you take care to do?
10: How did you keep your clothing clean?
11: How did you keep your body clean?
12: What did you do to keep the mosquitoes away at night?
13: What did you do whenever there was danger of disease?
14: Whom did you see when you were ill?

B1: What language were you given a knowledge of?
2: What did you have a training in?
3: What discussions did you take part in?
4: Where did you go when you were free?

C1: Where did you go with your regiment while the war was going on?
2: What did you do when you were in (England) and (France)?
3: What might you have seen in one of the villages?
4: What good has come out of all this experience?

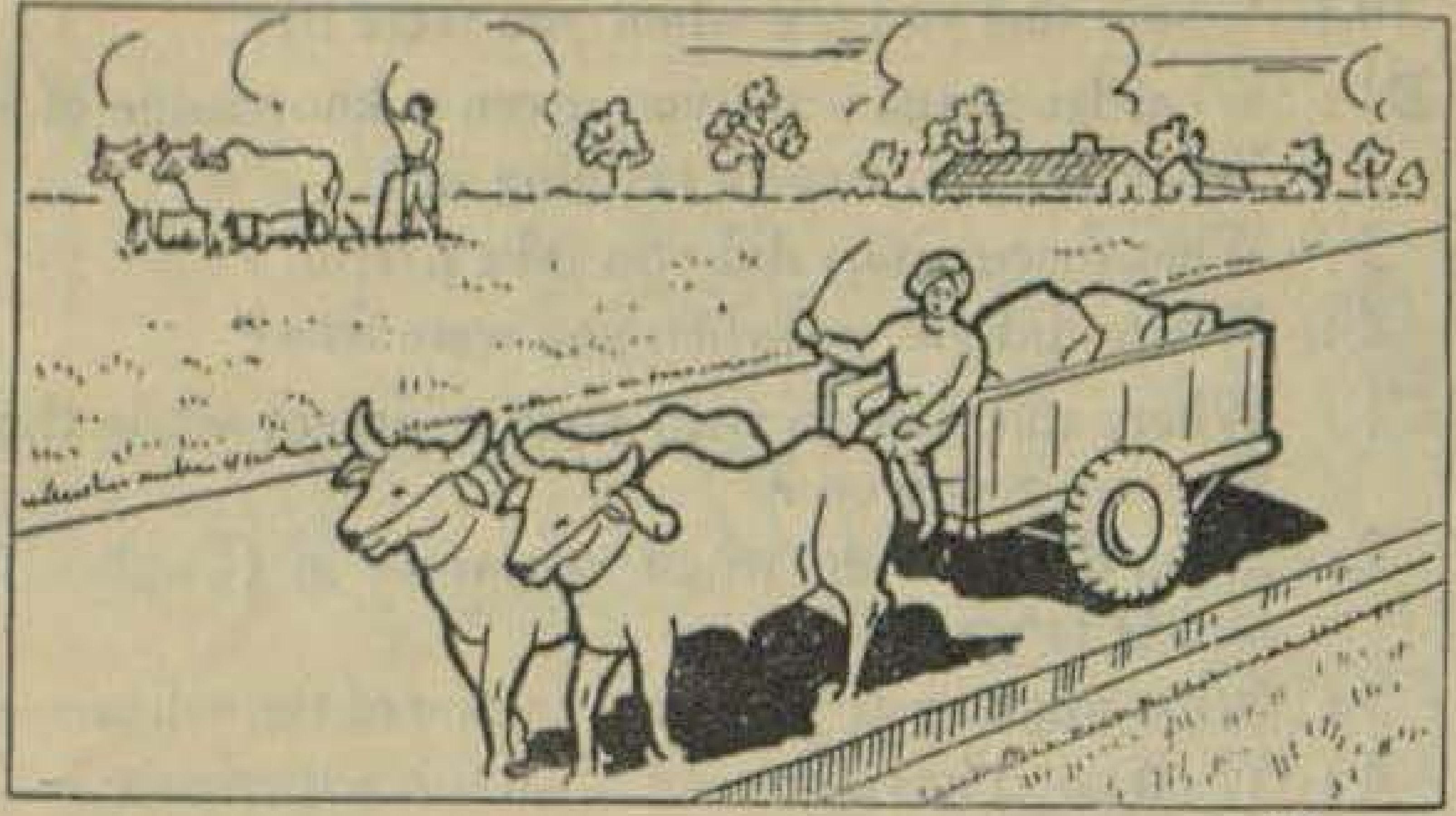
D1: What are the houses in our villages like?
2: How are the roads?
3: What sort of drains do we see in the villages?
4: What is the pond or tank used for?
5: Whom do we see playing about in the dust?
6: What do the men do?
7: Why isn't existence in the villages interesting?

E1: What will there have to be if you are to be happy in your future villages?
2: In what sort of quarters have you been living?
3: What sort of food have you been having?
4: What experience have you had?
5: Why will the villages have little or no attraction for you?
6: Is there any good reason why things have to be as they are?
7: Is change possible?
8: Who will have to be the instruments of this change?

F1: What is better than teaching?
2: How will you give an example to your friends and relations in the village?
3: What sort of feeling have brother-villagers for an ex-soldier?
4: Why do they give him a certain amount of respect?
5: What general tendency will there be among his brother-villagers?
6: Is there any value in giving short talks on how to keep healthy, etc.?
7: But what is the chief thing?

G1: What have you been given all these months?
2: Will waiting for money be necessary?
3: What are some of the things which it is not possible to do without the help of the Government?
4: Why will the Government have to do as you say?
5: Who is responsible even for this part of the village uplift programme?

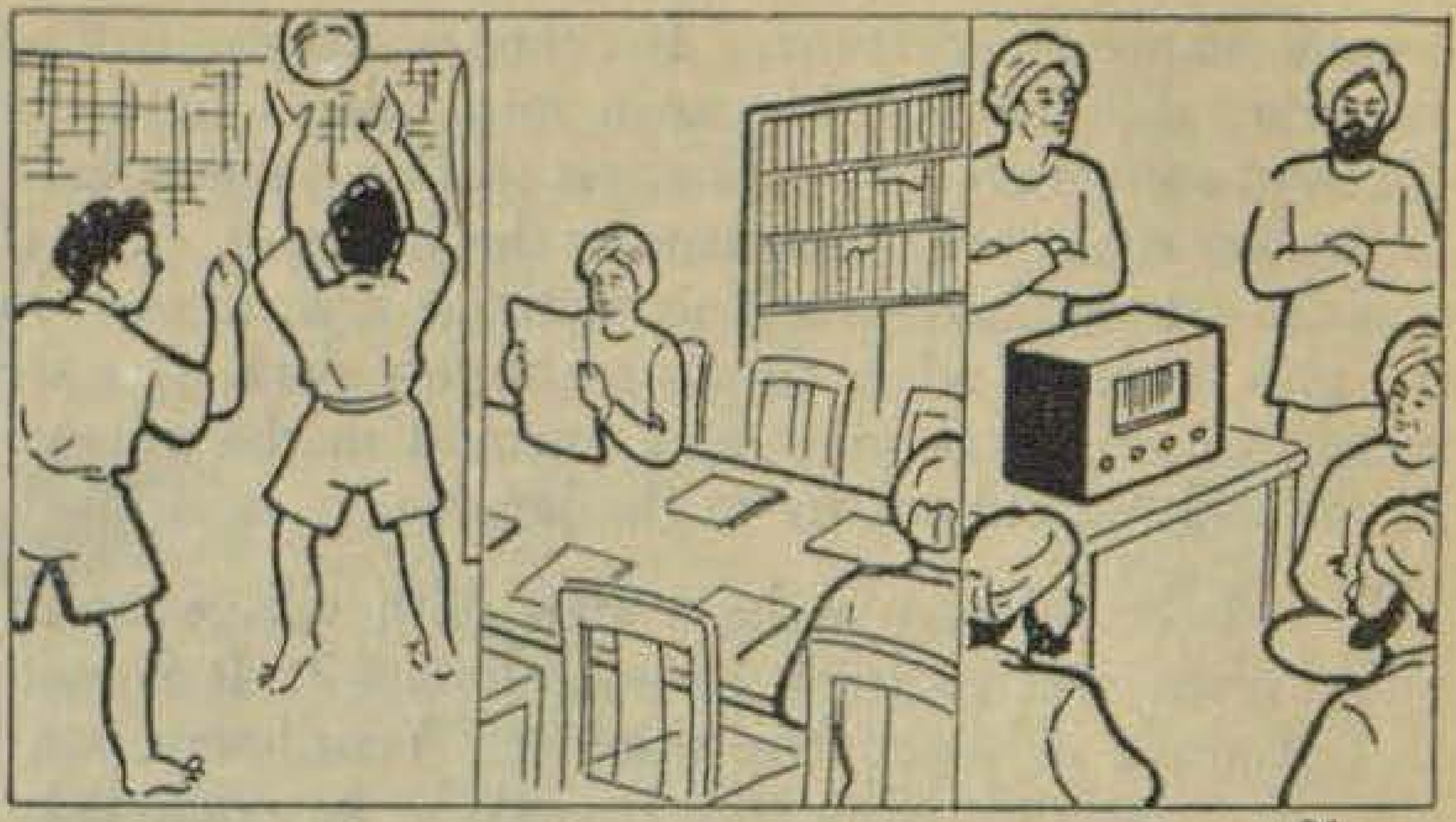
Unit 80 : Village of the Future



A. What will these new villages about which we have been talking be like? Let us give a complete picture of the sort of village which we are hoping will come into existence when the demobilized soldiers get back to their homes and take a hand in village uplift.

B. How do the fields in the new village seem? All the separate bits of land have been put together and made into one unit. The fields are not short and narrow as they were before; they are long and wide. They are quite flat, with a low wall running all round them. All the water which is over the earth or under it is now used; not a drop of water is wasted. The farmers make use of the best seeds which they are able to get on the market, and wherever possible they have a vegetable and a fruit garden. The farmers are using an iron plough. The cows and bullocks which we see in the fields are strong and healthy. Only the best sort of 'stud bulls,' which have the approval of the Government, are used. The roads are straight and are at a higher level than the fields. They are well cared for, so that they may be used in dry weather or wet weather. And at least one of the village roads is joined to a road which goes into the nearest town.

C. Round the village itself there are no unnecessary 'ponds' or other open stretches of water, no holes, no trenches in which mosquitoes may make their homes and put down their eggs. Earth for building houses comes from certain trenches specially used for this purpose, and not from trenches made anywhere and everywhere round about the village. The village women have given up making dung-cakes. The corn is crushed by bullocks and not by women. All the dirty things which we put away are taken to far-off trenches in hand-carts and are covered with earth. There are a great number of clean and healthy latrines about the village. The streets are made of hard stone and are kept free from water. Well-tops are covered with cement if possible, so that the well-water may be kept quite clean. The water which is dropped round about the well is drained away to near-by flower-gardens. Near the well is a good washing place for women which is shut in on all sides.



D. There are games in which all the younger villagers take part, and a recreation room with a small library which has a number of newspapers and books in it. And in some public place or other a radio set is placed from which the villagers may get the latest news. There are co-operative societies of every sort—a co-operative society which is responsible for games, another which is responsible for marketing the produce from the land, a third which is responsible for storing seeds and farming machines, a fourth which is responsible for cottage industries. In the middle of the village is a post office.

E. The houses are full of light and air. There are pictures on the walls and flowers in flower-pots which make the rooms beautiful. The roof is not black with smoke. The fire-place is long and wide so that a number of vessels may be put on it at the same time. This makes certain that coal or firewood is not wasted, as it is if we are cooking on a normal *chula*. Every fire-place has a chimney, through which the smoke goes out. And milk and other things are kept warm in hay-boxes and not over a slow fire of dung-cakes. The open space in front of the house is clean and well-kept. In the space are some vegetables and flower-plants, and sometimes a fruit tree like the papaya.

F. The boys and girls are clean, healthy and happy. They go to school; not one of them has any jewels or ornaments in his ears or round his neck. With the vegetables and fruit which she gets from her garden the mother is able to give her family the sort of food which will make them strong and healthy. She has no use for a tailor. She makes all the shirts and the coats which are needed, and whenever a shirt or a coat or a dhoti is cut or has a hole in it she gets it stitched herself. Working with needles and wool she makes all the warm banians which are so necessary in the cold weather. She has a knowledge of reading and writing and keeps a selection of books on questions which are of interest to her. She is a member of a women's club.

G. The farmer himself takes a great interest in his home and in his farm. His time is never wasted. There is at all times some bit of work or other for him to do—something which will make his home or his farm

or his village better. His time is not wasted even when he is free. He has a side-interest, such as reading or gardening or music, to which he gives up a great amount of his free time. He takes a great interest in village games or other amusements which give him pleasure. He is a member of a number of co-operative societies. He gets his seeds and fertilizers and all the materials needed for farming purposes through a co-operative society. The vegetables, fruit, grains, milk and butter which are produced by him are marketed through another co-operative society. He has a savings bank account, or keeps his money with a co-operative credit society. Everyone in the family is vaccinated a short time after birth and again if necessary. They all make use of mosquito nets, and naturally quinine is among the medicines stored in the house.

H. This is the sort of village which we are all hoping will come into existence when the demobilized soldier goes back to his home. This sort of village is possible if every soldier is fired with a desire to make the best use of the knowledge and the training which he got while he was in the Army.

B1 : What have the villagers done with the separate bits of land ?
2 : Are the fields short and narrow or long and wide ?
3 : Are they flat or sloping ?
4 : What is all round them ?
5 : Is any water wasted ?
6 : What sort of seeds do the farmers make use of ?
7 : What do the farmers have in addition to their fields ?
8 : What sort of plough are the farmers using ?
9 : What sort of cows and bullocks do we see in the fields ?
10 : What sort of 'stud bulls' are used ?
11 : How are the roads ?
12 : At what level are they ?
13 : Why is it possible to make use of the roads in dry or wet weather ?
14 : To what is at least one of the village roads joined ?

C1 : Why is there no malaria in the village ?
2 : Where does the earth for building houses come from ?
3 : What have the village women given up ?
4 : By whom is the corn crushed ?
5 : Where are all the dirty things which we put away taken ?
6 : Are there any latrines round about the village ?
7 : What are the streets made of ?
8 : What are they kept free from ?
9 : Why are the well-tops covered with cement ?
10 : Where is the water which is dropped round about the well drained away ?
11 : Is the washing-place open or is it shut-in ?

D1 : What has the recreation room in it ?
2 : Where is the radio set placed ?
3 : What use is it to the villagers ?
4 : What different sorts of co-operative societies are there in the village ?
5 : Where is the post-office ?

E1 : What are the houses full of ?
2 : What make the rooms beautiful ?
3 : Is the roof black with smoke ?
4 : Why is it possible to put a number of vessels on the fire-place at the same time ?
5 : What is the value of this ?
6 : How is this sort of chula better than a normal chula ?
7 : How does the smoke go out ?
8 : How are milk and other things kept warm ?
9 : How are the open spaces in front of the houses kept ?
10 : What is in these open spaces ?

F1 : What are the boys and girls like ?
2 : Do they go to school ?
3 : Have any of them any ornaments or jewels ?
4 : Of what use is the garden to the mother ?
5 : Why has she no use for a tailor ?
6 : Who gets coats and dhotis stitched whenever there is a cut or a hole ?
7 : Who makes all the warm banians ?
8 : When are these warm banians necessary ?
9 : What does the mother make them with ?
10 : What has she a knowledge of ?
11 : What sort of books does she keep ?
12 : What is she a member of ?

G1 : What does the farmer take an interest in ?
2 : What sort of work is there at all times ?
3 : What side-interest has he ?
4 : What sort of village games does he take an interest in ?
5 : What is he a member of ?
6 : How does he get his seeds and fertilizers and all the materials needed for farming purposes ?
7 : How are the fruit and grains marketed ?
8 : Has he any savings ?
9 : Where does he keep his money ?
10 : When is everyone in the family vaccinated ?
11 : How do they keep mosquitoes away while they are sleeping ?
12 : What is among the medicines stored in the house ?

PART 3

ONE-LEVEL (2): WORD-STRETCHES

NOTE TO THE LEARNER

Stretches of Form

A paint is a substance. A painter is a man. A paint is not a painter and a painter is not a paint. The two things are quite different, but there is clearly a connection between them. What is the connection? A painter is a man who gets his living by painting walls or pictures. By making the word *paint* only two letters longer (by *stretching* it in fact, like a bit of rubber) the learner is able to make up, without any trouble, a new word which is of great use to him. In the same way, for example, *polish* may be stretched to *polished* by the addition of *-ed*, and *part* to *parting* by the addition of *-ing*.

As you have seen (in Unit 58) the addition of the endings *-er*, *-ed*, *-ing*, which is a very simple change to make, gives us a great number of new and important words. This stretching trick is possible only in English, and it is one of the things which makes English less hard for the learner than most languages.

The unstretched form of a word (*paint*) is said to be its **root form**, because it is like the root of a tree from which the branches go out. The branches are the stretched forms.

In the Basic list of 850 words there are about 300 which may be stretched in one or more of these three ways to make another good English word. What *is* a good English word? It is one which is in common use among those whose language is English. So if you are uncertain about the way in which a certain word may be stretched, put this question to yourself: Is it probable that this form is commonly used by Englishmen? That is the only test. There is no doubt that the word *painter* (from *paint*) is used very frequently by Englishmen, so you may be certain it is a good English word. But is it probable that *rainer* (from rain) is commonly used? Is there anyone who gets his living by making rain, or by raining, or by putting rain on things, or by taking rain off things? Have you any picture in your mind of an *instrument* for making rain, or for putting rain on things? No. Then you may be certain that *rainer* is not a good English word. For the learner whose knowledge of English is still not very good, common sense is the only guide, but it is normally a very good guide.

Now let us see what sort of words the addition of the three endings gives us. There are three chief sorts:

1. Names of Acts

The first and simplest words are those formed from other words which are names of acts, or which are frequently used as names of acts. For example:

A *painter* is a person who gets his living by *painting*.

The root form here is *paint*. See if the words in this list may be used in the same way:

design, produce, sneeze, cart, print, garden, trade, office, farm, work, join, skin, plant, sort, play, oil, rule, gun, stitch, taste, train, box, blow, sail.

Sometimes, to make the sense clear, another word is needed. If it is, put it in. For example:

A (*tea*) *planter* is a person who gets his living by *planting* (*tea*).

Some of the words are put in the list simply to give you a laugh. Which are they?

In this group the *-er* form is the name of a person (the person who does the act in question) and the *-ing* form is the name of the act which he does.

There is another group in which the *-er* form is the name not of a person but of a thing. For example, from *crack* you get:

A (*nut*) *cracker* is a thing which is used for *cracking* (*nuts*).

Now see which of the words in this list may be used in the same way:

crush, lock, stretch, steam, test, push, paint, dust, oil, wash, roll, light, rule, level, stop, heat, start, burn, cook.

2. Feelings and Conditions

Another simple group is formed of the names of conditions of feeling or being. With these the *-er* form gives us the name of the person having the feeling or the condition talked about. For example, from *desire* you get:

A *desirer* is a person who has a *desire*.

See which of the words in this list may be used, in the same way, in place of *desire*:

comfort, doubt, fear, hope, hate, trouble, love, regret.

3. Substances

There is a very important group of words in which the *-ing* form is used for the doing of some act for which the thing named is used, or in which it takes the chief part. The act is frequently that of putting the substance on to something. For example, *oiling* is *putting oil on*.

See which of the words listed here will go into these spaces and make sense :

dust, paint, butter, water, wax, chalk, sugar, coal, ink, polish, cork.

1. Buttering bread is putting butter on bread.
2. ....white shoes is putting..............on white shoes.
3. ....a ship is putting..............in the ship.
4. ....a table is putting..............on a table.
5. ....a seat is taking..............off the seat.
6. ....tea is putting..............in the tea.
7. ....flowers is putting..............on the flowers.
8. ....a roller is putting..............on the roller.
9. ....a bottle is putting a..............in the bottle.
10. ....a face is putting..............on a face.
11. ....a floor is putting..............on the floor.
12. ....your lips is putting..............on your lips.

In addition to these three groups there are some words which make up only very small groups, or have no group at all.

Make a note of these when you come across them in your reading.

Stretches of Sense

We have said that this 'stretching' trick is possible only in English, and that it is one of the things which makes English less hard for the learner than most other languages. But there is another trick which is possibly of even greater value than the three endings. Have a look at these two statements :

1. The top part of a man's body is his head.
2. The Commander-in-Chief is the head of the Indian Army.

Head of the Army ? Has then the Army two ears, two eyes, a nose and a chin ? When we say the 'head of the army' the picture in our minds is not that of a head with two ears, two eyes, a nose and a mouth. It is a picture of the Commander-in-Chief right at the top of the Army. Because a head is the top part of a body, and the Commander-in-Chief is the top part of the Army, we say he is the head of the Army.

So the word *head*, even without putting on endings like *-er* and *-ing*, in fact without any change in its form at all, may be used in two senses—one for the thing on the top of our bodies, and one for 'top man.' But the learner doesn't have to give up time to the learning of two different words ; one word is enough for the two ideas.

In all languages, and specially in English, there are a great number of words, like *head*, with two or more senses, and one of the things you will have to do before you go on to Wider English is to make certain you have a good knowledge of all the most important senses of the most important words—the Basic words.

The first and chief sense of a word like *head* (= top part of our bodies) is said to be its **root sense.** A root sense, like a root form, is like the root of a tree. A tree comes up ; as it gets older it sends off more and more branches from its stem ; but the root will be there, solidly planted, for all time. So it is with the root sense of a word.

The other senses, which come into being from time to time by a stretch of the root sense to something a little different, are named expansions. When metals are heated they undergo expansion, that is, they become greater in size. In the same way when the root sense of a word is twisted or stretched to take in another idea it becomes greater in size, in covering power. That is why these other senses are said to be expansions of the root sense. Even the words *root* and *expansion*, you see, as used here, are expansions.

A word may have any number of expansions, and in fact new ones are being made up almost every day. The greatest number of expansions are formed by using the name of one thing for the name of another which seems in some way to be like it. Things may be like one another in a number of different ways.

1. Form, size, sound, etc.

The simplest comparisons to make are those dependent on sense qualities—size, form, sound, and so on. Starting with that which is nearest to us—ourselves—we readily see parallels between the parts of the body and certain common things.

We have seen how *head* may be used for the top of anything. In the same way *foot* becomes the general name for a base ; any branch or rod roughly in the position of an arm is said to be an arm, while the all-important use of the arm in the early days for fighting made it seem natural for instruments of war to be looked upon as longer and stronger *arms* ; the connection between the leg of an animal and the leg of a seat or bed is even clearer ; and the fact that the chest is the box where our breathing-apparatus is kept gives us the more general use of *chest* for 'box' and 'chest of drawers.'

Other important expansions in this field are *mouth* (an opening), *heart* (for the seat of the feelings), *neck* (the narrow part of a bottle and so on), *tooth* (for anything pointed like a tooth), and *face* (the side which is in front or before one's eyes).

Great things are frequently said to be *mountains* ; small things are *babies* ; a number of persons become an *army* ; *plates* of steel and glass are so named because they are flat and smooth ; thinner substances, such as paper, are *leaves* ; a hollow is a *basin* ; a long thin bit of anything is a *stick* ; we have *cakes* of soap ; we even have family *trees*. In much the same way the sound of guns comes to our ears like *thunder*, and some are more moved by the *music* of the river than by the music of the band.

Put these words into the right spaces :

shoe, head, end, tongue, top, bed, face, horse, mouth, arm.

1. The..............of a machine is like the.............. of a man's body.
2. The..............of a clock is like a man's..............
3. The..............of a stick is like the..............of a man because its position is at the..............

4. The.................... of a bag, like the.................... of a fish, isn't open all the time.
5. The.................. of a.................. is like the.................. of a.................... because it's the higher end.
6. Whoever saw a.................. putting out its.................. ?

2. Purpose, Behaviour

The comparisons based on purpose or behaviour are more complex, and these make up the widest group. A *breath* of wind is something like the breath we give out, and the *carriage* of a train is used for the same purpose (the transport of persons) as a carriage pulled by horses. But the chain of connection is longer between the *bed* of a river or a *flower-bed* and the *bed* in which we take our rest, between an automatic machine in a railway station and a man who is said to be a *machine* because he does the same sort of thing over and over again, or between the kick of an animal and the *kick* of an engine.

Put these words into the right spaces :
cloud, root, credit, birth, side.

1. The.................... of an idea seems to us like the.................... of a baby.
2. Her face was dark and sad ; it was as if a black.................... had come over it.
3. You are not taking into account the other.................. of the question.
4. We will have to get down to the.................... of the trouble.
5. No-one gave him.................... for what he had done.

3. Fictions ('as if')

Going a step farther, things which have no true existence are talked of as if they were like things which we see round us. It would not be possible to take a walk in a *field* of interest, though there is something in common between the range of our thoughts and a limited space ; strong though the *attraction* may be which cakes have for a small boy, he is not physically pulled to them as the needle of a compass is to the magnetic north ; and *fixed* ideas are not fixed to anything, as a picture may be fixed to a page by paste.

4. Reactions

Certain names of qualities give us another group of expansions, the connection here being dependent on our reactions to the things of which they are used. What is there in common between a bitter taste and a *bitter* experience, stiff material and *stiff* behaviour, a smooth floor and *smooth* words, a bright colour and a *bright* face ? There is much in common. Most of us have as little desire for a second *bitter* experience as we have to take a second bitter fruit ; a person who is *stiff* in behaviour generally has the look of being made of stiff material ; *smooth* words are as kind to our feelings as a smooth floor is to our feet ; and we are made as happy by a *bright* face as we are by a bright colour.

5. If it is this, then it is this

There is another group in which the connection is based on a tendency for things which have one quality to have a second. Cheap things are frequently in bad taste, so things which are in bad taste are said to be *cheap*, even though a high price may have been given for them. The less complex an act is the less hard it is to do, and so acts which give us little trouble are said to be *simple*.

6. Name for Cause, Process, Use

Not all expansions of sense are based on the relation of like to like. For example, the name of a feeling or thing may be used for its cause, as with *amusement, comfort, pleasure, agreement*. Or the name of a thing may be used for the process by which it is produced, as in *addition, building, discovery*. A third group of this sort is formed by the expansion of the name of a thing to its use, such as *brush, sail, whistle*.

Make clear, by putting 'r' or 'e' in the brackets, which words in these statements are used in their root senses and which are expansions:

1. He doesn't get any amusement ( ) out of common amusements ( ) like watching football or going to the pictures.
2. What's the point of having so much money in the bank and no comfort ( ) in the house ?
3. Being in agreement ( ) it didn't take long for them to come to an agreement ( ).
4. Which pleasures ( ) give more pleasure ( ) than the simple pleasures ( ) of the countryside ?
5. I have made no addition ( ) to my library for over a year.
6. Discoveries ( ) like those of Galileo are frequently made by chance.
7. Building ( ) up knowledge of a language is like building ( ) a building ( ) ; the base is the most important part.
8. I have given you a brush ( ). Why don't you give your hat a brush ( ) every morning ?
9. Let's go for a sail ( ). That's not possible ; the sails ( ) have great holes in them.
10. He gave a little whistle ( ) of surprise.

7. Part and Whole

Sometimes a thing which is part of a greater thing gives its name to it. A number of letters (a, b, c, etc.) when put down on paper, in order, make the sort of *letter* which we send to someone ; and when a number of men get together to do something they become one *body* in the eyes of the law.

8. Substance and Thing

A little different is the expansion of the name of a substance to something which is commonly formed out of it, a *glass* for a drinking-vessel, an *iron* for a flat-iron, a *tin* for a tin box or pot, and so on.

9. General Connections

Last of all, there are a number of expansions based on true connections which do not, however, go into any group. Most of these are, happily, quite simple. Examples are *gold* and *orange*, which give their name to their colour ; *relation*, for a person in a family relation ; *force*, for something which has force ; *library*, for the books which go in a library. Not quite so simple are : *spring* and *fall*, for the times of year before and after summer ; a *note* in music, for a sound in a scale ; (the) *rest*, for what is in addition. It takes a little more thought, or knowledge of the history of words, to see the connection between the point of a pin and the *point* of a story, between the plane which makes wood smooth and the *plane* of an airplane, between the frame of a picture and the *frame* of a structure, or between being without doubt and of a *certain* (but unnamed) sort.

Special Senses

We have been talking about expansions of the root sense. There is another way in which the sense of a word may be stretched to take in a somewhat different idea. This is by *limiting* the sense to some special sort of thing covered by the name.

A special sense is different from an expansion because it gives a word a narrower, not a wider, use. A ball, for example, may be a ball of anything (iron, wood, wool, etc.) but if no other details are given it is generally taken to be a ball for sport (football, hockey-ball, etc.). In the same way a judge may be a judge of anything (men, horses, flowers, etc.). But if the word *judge* is used by itself it is normally taken to have the sense of *law-judge*. Other examples are *stamp* (post office stamp) and *pictures* (motion pictures).

Stretches of Form and Sense

So far we have given attention only to the expansions and special senses of words in their root form. But the addition of the *-er*, *-ing*, *-ed* endings frequently makes new expansions and special senses possible. A certain number of these give us words which are necessary to the Basic system. A list may be of use. First, among the expansions, we have : *clothing, crying, facing, gripping, moving, noted, painting, parting, playing, rubber, stretcher, training, united, working*. Some of the most important special senses are : *actor, duster, feeler, keeper, maker, producer, sailor, shocked, stopper, used.*

Quite a number of words have no special sense and no expansion. Some have only a special sense or only an expansion ; and though no word may have more than one special sense, because if there were more we might get them mixed up, it may have any number of expansions. For example, a *line*, from being a long mark, comes to be used for the way between two points, for things placed in the form of a line (a line of houses), for the rails of a train (railway line), and for a cord (fishing-line). With a little experience, this sort of word will not give trouble ; the sense is made clear by what is being talked about.

Names of Qualities for Names of Things

Among the names of qualities, some have a different sort of expansion in their use as names of things. The simplest example of this is the use of the name of a quality with *the* before it, in the sense " that which is....." or " those who (which) are.......... " (for example, *the beautiful, the old, the dead, the first, the last*). But a number of these names of qualities are used as names of things with somewhat more special senses. These are :

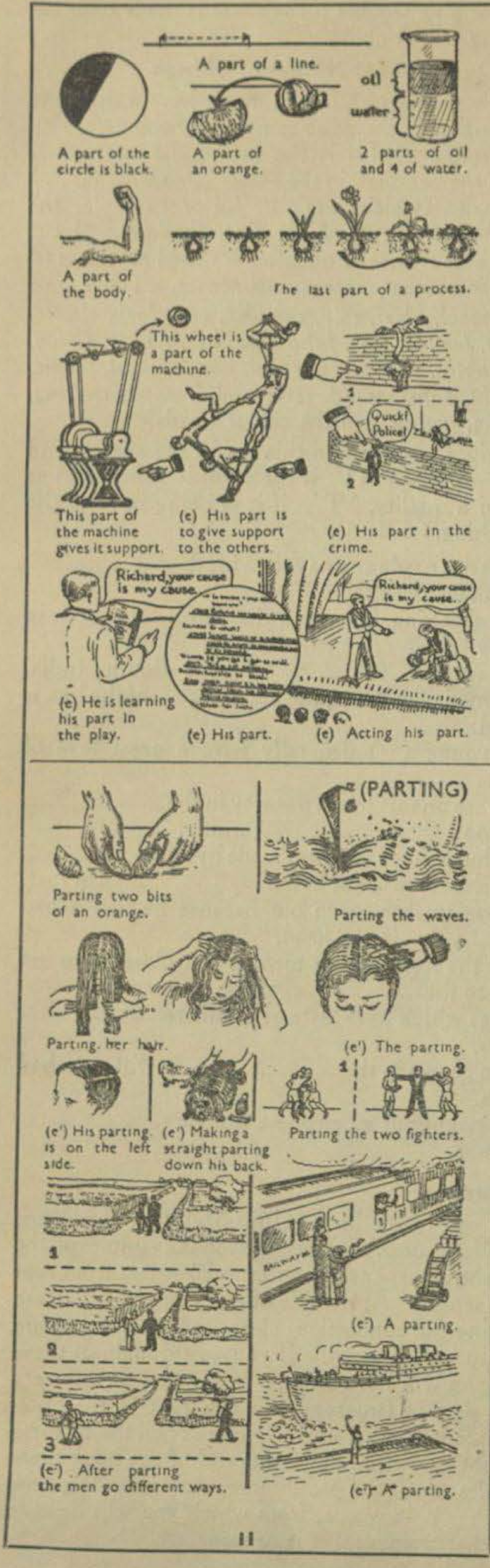
acid, chemical, chief, cold, complex, cut, dark, elastic, equal, fat, female, flat, future, good(s), hollow, living, male, material, opposite, parallel, past, present, public, quiet, right, safe, second, secret, solid, sweet, waiting, wet, wrong, young, and the colour words.

Put the right words from this list in the spaces, and after every word put 'Q' if the word is being used as the name of a quality, 'T', if it is being used as the name of a thing.

1. He has not made any payment for the.............................. he took last week.
2. Such shocking behaviour has no..............................in history.
3. Rice is the..............................food of South India.
4. Your money will be quite..............................if the box is locked.
5. The young ( ) generally have a great love of ....
6. We were unable to see our way in the.............................. and took the..............................turning.
7. This burn in my coat was made by an..............................
8. This shirt is made of better..............................than that.
9. He was unable to go out because he had a bad ....in the head.
10. After the noise of the town it is a pleasure to get away to the..............................of the countryside.
11. Things which have taste or smell are.............................. things.
12. If you go out in the..............................you will get a bad cough.
13. The making of an airplane is a very.............................. business.

The Pictures

In this part of the book (Units 81-100) you will see a number of pictures. They are given as examples of the development of expansions and special senses from root forms and senses. At the side of every picture there are notes making the connections clear, and under these are questions to be answered. If you go through all these with care you will have a much better idea of this very important part of language. In this part of the book there is space for only a small selection of all the pictures which might be put in, but at the end of the book there are examples of all the possible expansions and special senses of the Basic words, from which you will be able to get further training if it is needed.



Unit 81: Part

A. Root Sense :—Part of the circle is marked off from the rest of the circle by being printed in black. Part of the circle is white. In the second picture the broken line is not as long as the solid line ; it is only a part of it. The longest part of the solid line is the part on the right of the broken line. A part of an orange has been taken away from it. A part of an orange is different from a part of a circle because it may readily be got separate from the rest of the orange ; that is to say, the divisions of an orange are natural divisions. The division of the liquid into equal parts has been made by marking the side of the vessel. There are six parts, two parts of oil and four parts of water.

The arm is a part of the body. It is more like a part of an orange than a part of a circle, not because it may readily be got separate from the rest of the body, but because the different forms and uses of the arms, legs, and so on make the division into parts a natural one.

On the right is a picture of a process. It is the process of growth in a bulb. Only the last part of the process has been given attention in this picture. One stage in a process is a part of it.

Like a body, a machine has parts which are different in form and use. The hand is pointing to the part which gives support. The special name for this part is the base.

B. First Expansion (part in an act, play, etc.) :—The man to whom the hand is pointing is like the base of the machine, because he gives support to the other man in the higher positions. What he is doing is a part of a complex act. His part is to give support to the others. On the right a crime is taking place. The crime is a complex act done by two men. The part played in the crime by the man on this side of the wall is to give the other man help in getting over the wall and to keep watch for the police.

This man is learning his part in a play. He is an actor. The words which he has to say are underlined. They are his part. On the stage he is acting his part without the help of the book.

C. Second Expansion (separating) :—The hands are parting two bits of an orange. When the ship goes through the water waves go rolling away from it on the left and on the right ; the ship is parting the waves.

The woman is parting her hair. She might even be said, like the ship, to be parting the waves in her hair. This act makes a parting in the middle of her hair.

The boy's parting is on the left-hand side of his hair. The dog is having a straight parting made down its back. Some of the hair is put on one side of the middle line and some on the other. The man in black is parting the two fighters ; he is keeping one on one side of him and one on the other.

D. Third Expansion (going away from) :—This is a group of three pictures. In the first picture two men are walking down a road together. In the third picture they are going in opposite directions. The parting took place in the second picture. Here we see them shaking hands. This is the normal form of behaviour at partings. In addition, it is common when two persons are meeting. On the right are two pictures of a parting. In the first one person is going away from the others by train. In the second picture someone is going away by ship.

Questions

A1 : What is marked off from the rest of the circle by being printed in black ?
2 : Is part of the circle white ?
3 : Is the broken line as long as the solid line ?
4 : Which is the longest part of the solid line ?
5 : What has been taken away from the orange ?
6 : In what way is the part of the orange a different sort of part from those marked on the circle and the line ?
7 : Yes, the divisions of an orange are natural divisions. The division of the liquid into equal parts has been made by marking the side of the vessel. What number of parts are there ?
8 : How much oil is there in the vessel and how much water ?
9 : What is the arm a part of ?
10 : Now here on the right is pictured not a thing but what ?
11 : What process is it ?
12 : And which part of the process has been given special attention in the picture ?
13 : What is a stage in a process in relation to a complete process ?
14 : A machine, like a body, has parts which are different in form and use. To what part of the machine is the hand pointing ?
15: A supporting part at the foot of a structure has a special name. What is it ?

(*See opposite page.*)

Unit 82: Base



A. Root Sense :—The round support is a part of a building. The hand is pointing to the base of this support. The base is the foot or lowest part of the support. The base of the tree is the part of it which is nearest the earth and from which its roots go down into the earth.

The machine is resting on a base of wood. The stem of the light is fixed into the base of the light. The base keeps the light from falling over.

The base of the backbone is not different in form from the rest of it. It is the lowest part of it.

The lowest part of the stone structure, on which it is resting, is its base. When the builders were putting up the structure they put up the base first, so that there would be something for the rest of the structure to go on top of.

In the wool work the base of the material is made first, so that the rest of the work may be done on top of it. The girl is putting some powder on her face. Before she puts the powder on she puts on a base to keep the powder from falling off. The branches of the plant go out in different directions from its base.

B. Expansion (base of operations) :—The picture with the airplanes in it is like the picture of the plant. In the same way as the branches of the plant go out from the base the airplanes in this picture go out in different directions from their base. And in the same way as the branches of the tree get the liquid which is necessary for their growth from its base, so do the airplanes get the oil which is necessary for their flight from their base.

The group of buildings inside the circle is an army base. From this base food and raw material are sent to the fighting line. The building near the top of the circle is a base hospital.

Questions

A1 : What is the round support a part of ?

2 : Which part of the support is the hand pointing to ?

3 : What is the position of the base in relation to the rest of the support ?

4 : Which part of the tree is its base ?

5 : What is the machine resting on ?

6 : What is the stem of the light fixed into ?

7 : And what is the purpose of the base ?

8 : Is the base of the backbone different in form from the rest of it ?

9 : How do you see which part is the base ?

10 : What is the lowest part of the stone structure ?

11 : Is it resting on its base ?

12 : When the builders were putting up this structure which part of it did they put up first, so that there would be something for the rest of the structure to go on top of ?

13 : Now take a look at the wool-work. Which part of the material is made first, so that the rest of the work may be done on top of it ?

14 : What does the girl put on her face first before putting on the powder ?

15 : From what part of the plant do all the branches go out in different directions?

B1 : Why is the picture with the airplanes in it like the picture of the plant ?

2 : Take the parallel a little farther. From the base of the stem a liquid goes up into the branches of the plant which is necessary for their growth. What liquid (necessary for flight) do the airplanes get from their base ?

3 : In the last picture what is the group of buildings inside the circle ?

4 : What is sent from the base to the fighting-line ?

5 : What is the building near the top of the circle ?

(*Questions on 'Part'*)

B1 : Why is the man to whom the hand is pointing like the base of the machine ?

2 : His body is part of a complex structure of bodies. Do you see a parallel to this in the relation of the work he is doing to the complex act of balancing which is taking place ?

3 : What is his part ?

4 : In the two pictures by the side of this, what is taking place ?

5 : Is the crime a complex act done by more than one man ?

6 : What is the part in the crime of the man on this side of the wall ?

7 : Is a play an undertaking in which actors have special parts ?

8 : What is the actor with the book doing ?

9 : What part of the play is underlined ?

10 : On the stage, what is he acting ?

C1 : In the second picture, what is the first act pictured ?

2 : When the ship goes through the water, waves go rolling away from it on the left and on the right. What is the ship doing to the waves ?

3 : What is the woman doing ?

4 : Yes, she is parting her hair She might even be said, like the ship, to be parting the waves. What does this operation make in the middle of her hair ?

5: Where is the boy's parting ?

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6 : What is done to the dog's hair when a parting is made down its back ?

7 : Is the man in black keeping the two fighters together ?

8 : What is he doing ?

D1 : Now we come to a group of pictures. In the first picture two men are walking down a road together. In the third place they are going in opposite directions. What took place in the second picture ?

2 : What do we see them doing in the picture of the parting ?

3 : Is this a normal form of behaviour at partings ?

4 : At what other times is it common ?

Unit 83: Head

A. Root Sense :—The first picture is of a man's head. The head is a part of a man's body. The only part of the horse's body which is pictured is its head. The mouth of the snake is open very wide, but its mouth is only one part of its head.

B. First Expansion (top) :—A man's head is at the top of his body. In the same way, the round top part of the stick is said to be its head, and the part of a bed where a person puts his head is the head of the bed.

Under this you see a long line of men like the long curving body of a snake. When the snake is moving, it is its head which goes first, and for this reason we say that the front of the line of men is its head. The man who goes first in the line is said to be at the head of the line.

C. Second Expansion (chief) :—Here is an army. The man on horseback is at the head of the army. He is the man who gives orders to the army. In a body it is the brain which gives orders to the different parts, and as the brain is in the head we say that the man who gives orders to the army is the head of the army.

This is a picture of a brain inside a head. Branching down from the brain are lines which keep in touch with the other parts of the body. These are the nerves. Through the nerves the brain sends impulses to the different parts of the body. In this way it is able to keep control of the acts of the body. In the same way, in a business, the man who has control of its different parts is said to be the head of it. The workers who are controlled by the head of the business are like the muscles of the body which are controlled by the brain which is in the head. The nerves of a business are the telephone lines and so on which keep the head in touch with what is going on.

D. Third Expansion (heading) :—Have a look at the list under the body. There is one name **(L. Brown)** which is at the head of the list, and so we say it is heading the list. It is the part of the list which we see first. For the same reason the lines which come first on the bit of notepaper are said to be the heading. In a newspaper or a book it is the headings which we see first.

Questions

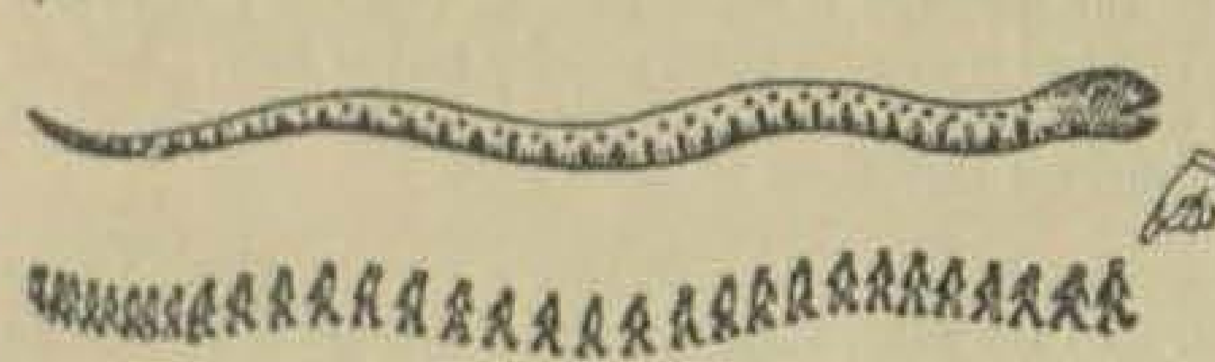
- A1 : What is the first picture of?
- 2 : What is the head a part of?
- 3 : What part of the horse's body is pictured?
- 4 : The mouth of the snake is open very wide, but what is the mouth only one part of?
- B1 : What is the position of a man's head in relation to the rest of his body?
- 2 : Which part of the stick is said to be its head?
- 3 : The foot of a bed is the part where a person puts his feet. Which is its head?
- 4 : What is the long, curving line of men like?
- 5 : When the snake is moving, does its tail or its head go first?
- 6 : For that reason, what do we say the front of the line is?
- 7 : And what do we say about the position of the man who goes first?
- C1 : Here is an army. Where is the man on horse-back?
- 2 : Is he the man who gives orders to the army?
- 3 : In a body, where is the brain, which gives orders to the different parts?
- 4 : What, then, do we say this man is?
- 5 : At the top of the second picture we see a picture of a brain inside a head. What are the branching lines which keep the brain in touch with the other parts of the body?
- 6 : Yes, they are nerves. It is through the nerves that the brain sends impulses to the different parts of the body. In this way, what is it able to do from its position in the head?
- 7 : So which man in a business is the head of it?
- 8 : Keeping that parallel in mind, what parts of the business are like the muscles of the body?
- 9: And what are like the nerves?
- D1 : That's the right idea. Let us go on now to HEADING. The name L. BROWN is at the head of the list, so what do we say it is doing?
- 2 : In what way is it like the head of the line of men?
- 3 : What comes first on the notepaper?
- 4 : When you are reading a newspaper, or come to a new division in a book, what do you see first?



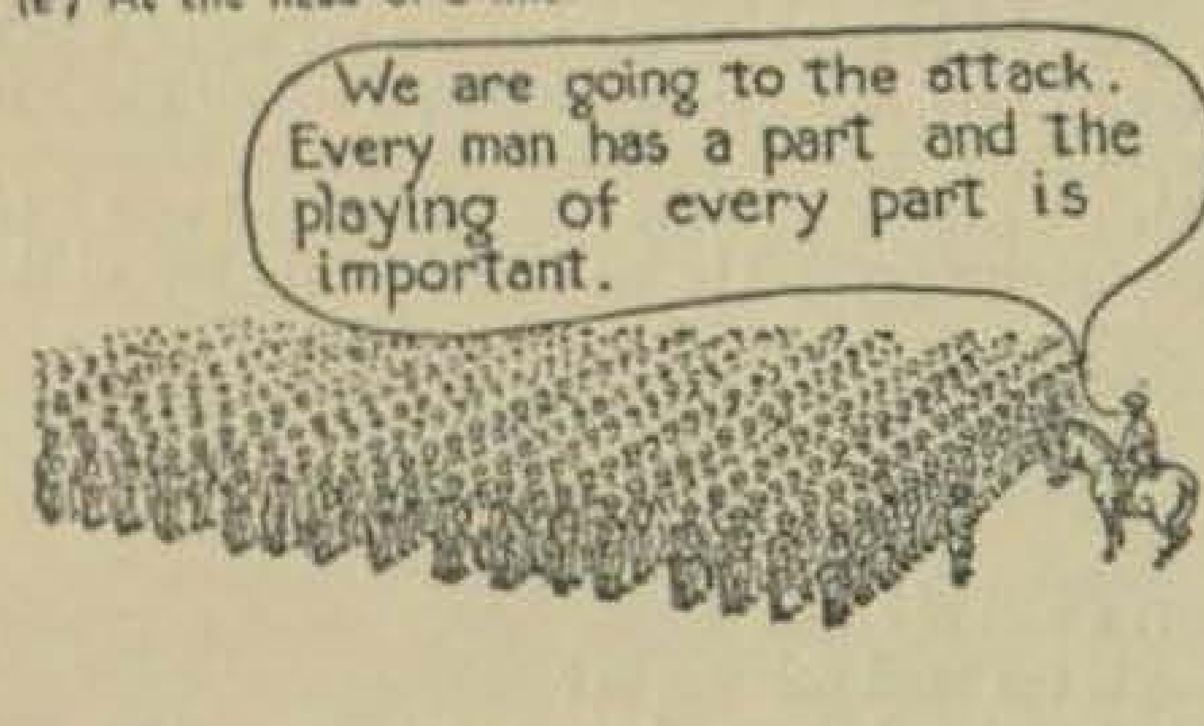
The head of a man. The head of a horse. The head of a snake



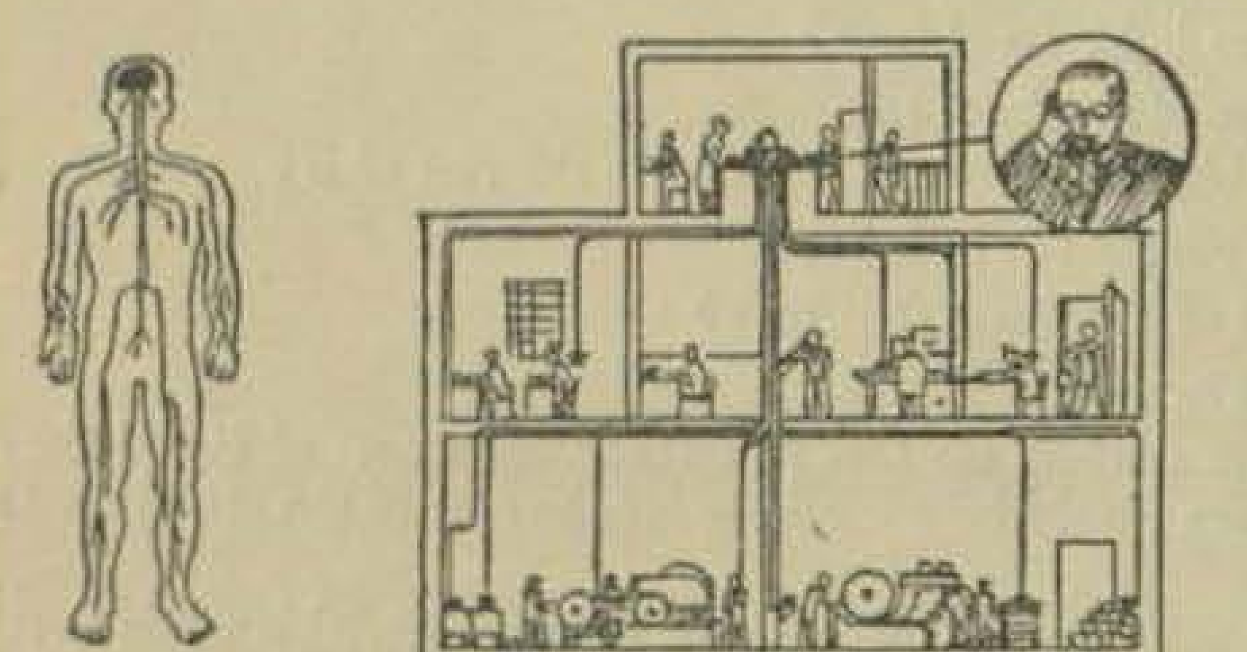
(e¹) The head of a stick. (e¹) The head of a bed.



(e¹) At the head of a line



(e²) He is the head of the army.



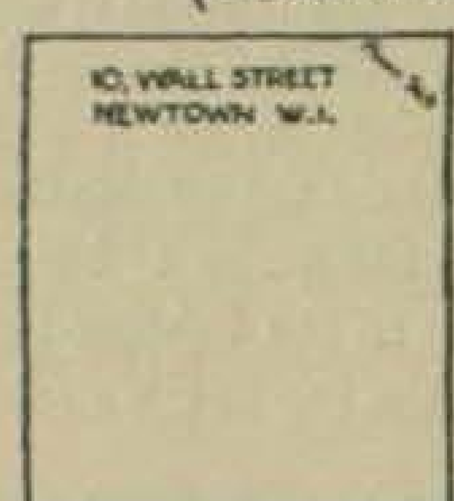
The body is controlled from the head.

(e²) The work of a business is controlled by its head.

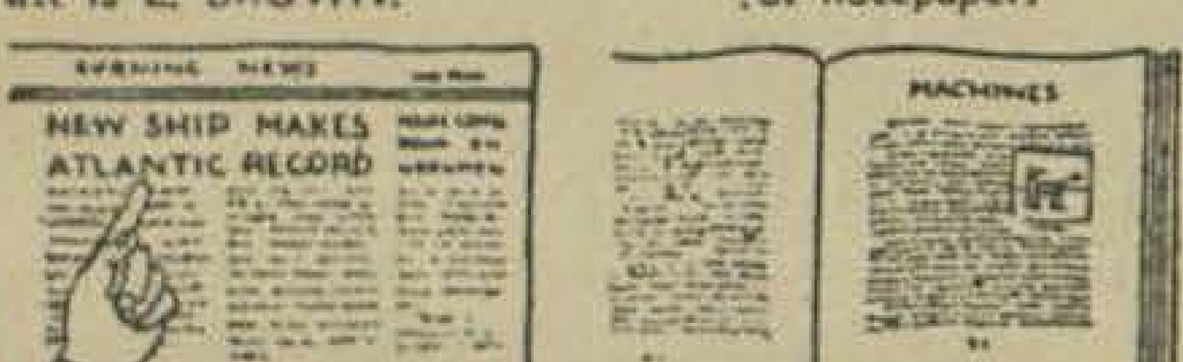
(HEADING)

L. BROWN
C. D. WAX
P. SWEET
E. YOUNG
O. T. EDGE
R. PLATE
J. LONG
R. S. FISHER

The name heading the list is L. BROWN.

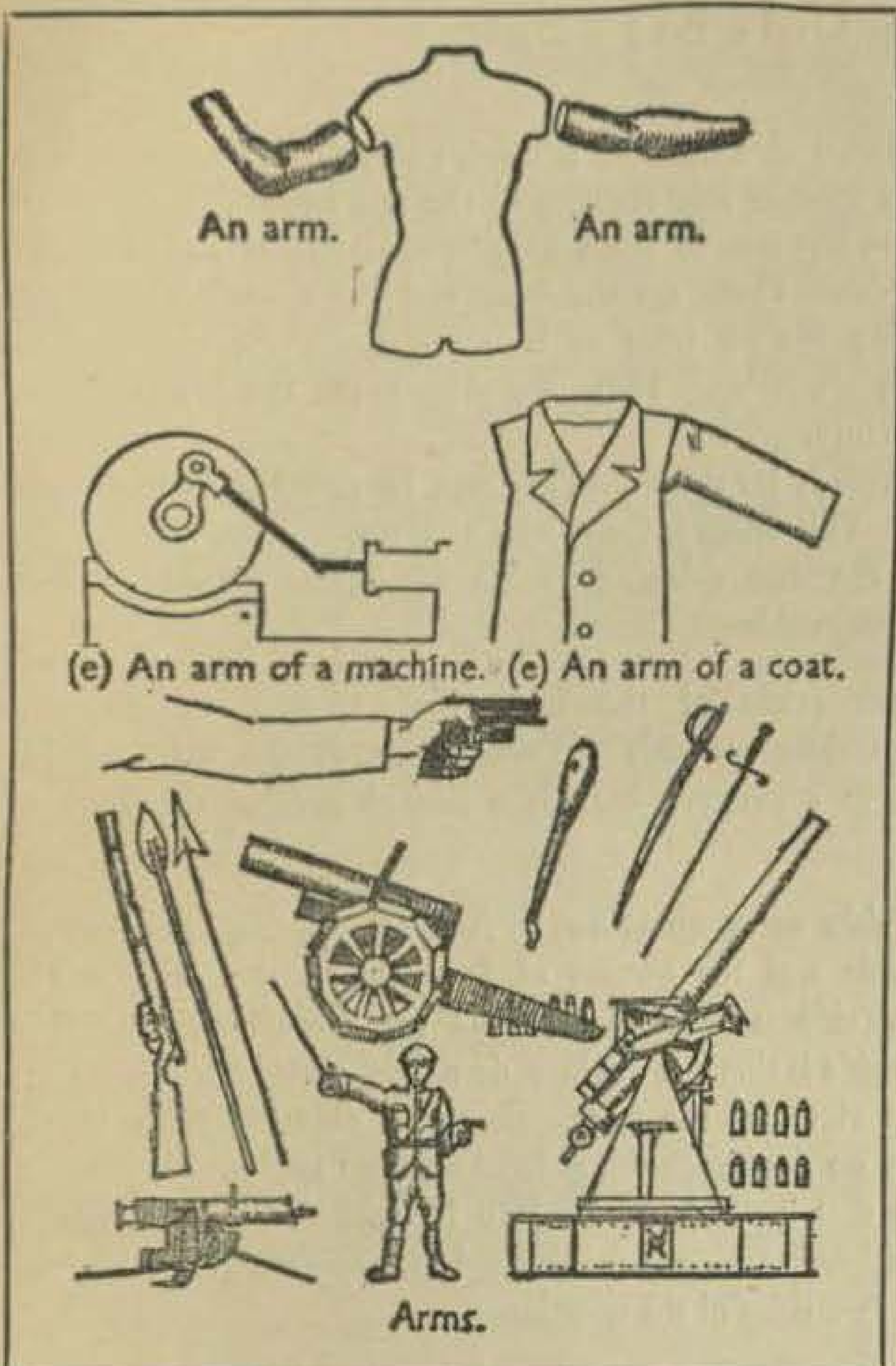


(e) The heading on a bit of notepaper.



(e) A newspaper heading.

(e) The heading on the page is MACHINES.



Questions

A1 : At the top of the picture is an outline picture of a body. Is it complete?

2 : Is the man able to see or make use of his brain or take food?

3 : Why not?

4 : Is he able to go running about?

5 : Why not?

6 : Is he able to give another man a blow or push or a pull?

7 : Why not?

8 : Do you see his arms in the picture?

9 : Are the two arms complete?

10 : But what do you not see joined to the arms at the end farthest from the body?

11 : Why do you see the arms more readily than the rest of the picture?

12 : In what way are the two arms different from one another?

B1 : Turning now to the second line, do you see one part of the machine which is darker than the rest of it?

2 : What is this part like?

3 : Have you any idea what this part of the machine does to the wheel when the machine is working?

4 : If you were going to make a wheel go round, what part of your body would you give it a push with?

Unit 84: Arm

A. Root Sense :—At the top of the picture is an outline picture of a body. The body, however, is not complete. This man is unable to see or make use of his brain or take food because he has no head. He is unable to go running about because he has no legs. He is unable to give another man a blow or a push or a pull because his arms are cut off. The arms themselves are complete but they have no hands.

B. First Expansion (arm of machine, etc.) :—In the second line there is a picture of a machine. One part of the machine is darker than the rest of it. This part is like the bent arm. This part of the machine gives the wheel a push and makes it go round. If you were going to make a wheel go round you would give it a push with your arm. So this machine-part, which is like a bent arm and is used for pushing, is said to be an arm of the machine.

C. Second Expansion (arm of a coat) :—To the right of the machine is a coat. The coat has a narrow part coming out from its left side. This part is named an arm of the coat. There are two reasons why it is so named : in the first place it is like an arm in form and position ; and secondly it is the part into which a person puts his arm.

D. Third Expansion (instruments of war) :—If two men have a fight in the street, exchanging blow for blow, the parts of their bodies which they make most use of are their arms and hands. If one of the men has shorter arms than the other, or is not so strong, he may take up a stick so that he will be able to give the second man harder blows from a safer distance. The stick would then be a sort of addition to his arm. Here is a picture of an arm with an addition to it which, like a stick, would give help to a man in fighting. The hand of this arm is gripping a gun. Lower down there is a man waving a long sharp blade in the air. These instruments, the gun and the blade, are said to be arms because they are additions to arms and they make them able to do their work better.

Other sorts of arms are pictured here, but they are not all things which a man may take up in this hands. For example, there are three guns which it would not be possible to take up in the hand because of their great size and weight : one is on wheels ; one is fixed to a strong metal base and is pointing high into the air ; the other one, the smallest one, has a band of firing material which goes through the gun from one side to the other. This is a machine-gun. When the gun is put in operation it goes on firing automatically till the firing material is used up.

Like the other arms these may be looked on as an addition to a man's arm, even though he isn't able to take them up in his hands. In the first place, they do the work of fighting for him in place of his arms. Secondly, he puts them in operation by moving his arms and hands. Thirdly, their form is somewhat like that of the small guns which it is possible for a man to take in his hands. If we have in mind a picture of an army as being like one very strong man of great size, then these great guns may be looked on as the arms of the army.

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5 : So what is this machine-part which is like a bent arm and is used for pushing?

C1 : Which part of the coat is the arm of it?

2: Give two reasons why it is named the arm.

D1 : Now we come to another expansion of this word arm. If two men have a fight in the street exchanging blow for blow, what parts of their bodies do they make most use of?

2: But if one man has shorter arms than the other, or is not so strong, what may he do so as to give the second man harder blows from a safer distance?

3 : Quite so. And the stick is a sort of addition to the arm, isn't it?

4 : Well, looking at the lower half of the picture do you see any arms with an addition to them, which, like a stick, would give help to a man in fighting?

5 : Is it clear to you why such instruments are said to be arms?

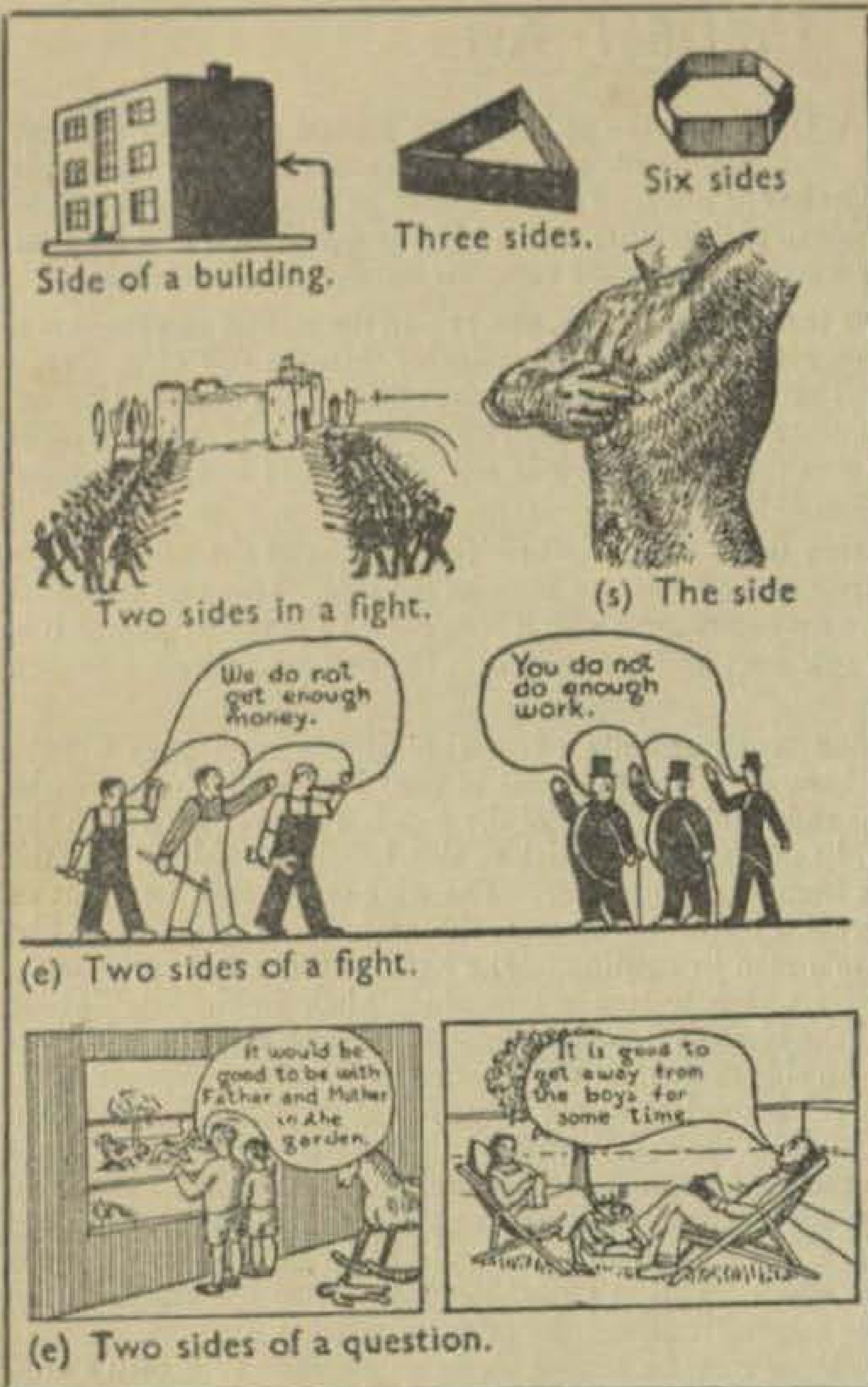
6 : Arms of different sorts are pictured here. Are they all things which a man may take up in his hands?

7 : Why not?

8 : Give me some account of these guns.

9 : Is there some sense in which these great guns may be looked on as like an addition to a man's arm, even though he isn't able to take them up in his hands?

10 : And aren't they very like some smaller arms which he does take in his hands?



Unit 85: Side

A. Root Sense :—Part of a building is being pointed to. It is a side of it. The building has another side opposite to the one we are looking at. A building has four sides, but two of them have special names and are not generally talked of as sides. These are the front and the back. The thing to the right of the building has no front or back ; it has three sides. The last thing in the line has six sides. These six sides make the limits round the space inside the structure.

Here are two armies ready for a fight. They will be fighting in the space which is between them. This space is limited by the two armies. So in the fight the two armies are the two sides. In other words, the two groups of men are fighting on opposite sides.

B. Special Sense (side of the body) :—The man is pointing to his side. A person's sides are only a limited part of the sides of his body, in the same way as a person's back is a limited part of the back of his body.

C. Expansion (side of a question) :—A fight is going on between the workers on one side and the owners of industry on the other. The feeling on the workers' side is that they do not get enough money. The feeling on the owners' side is that the workers do not do enough work. They seem to have different views of the facts. Being on different sides in the fight for existence they no doubt see things from different angles.

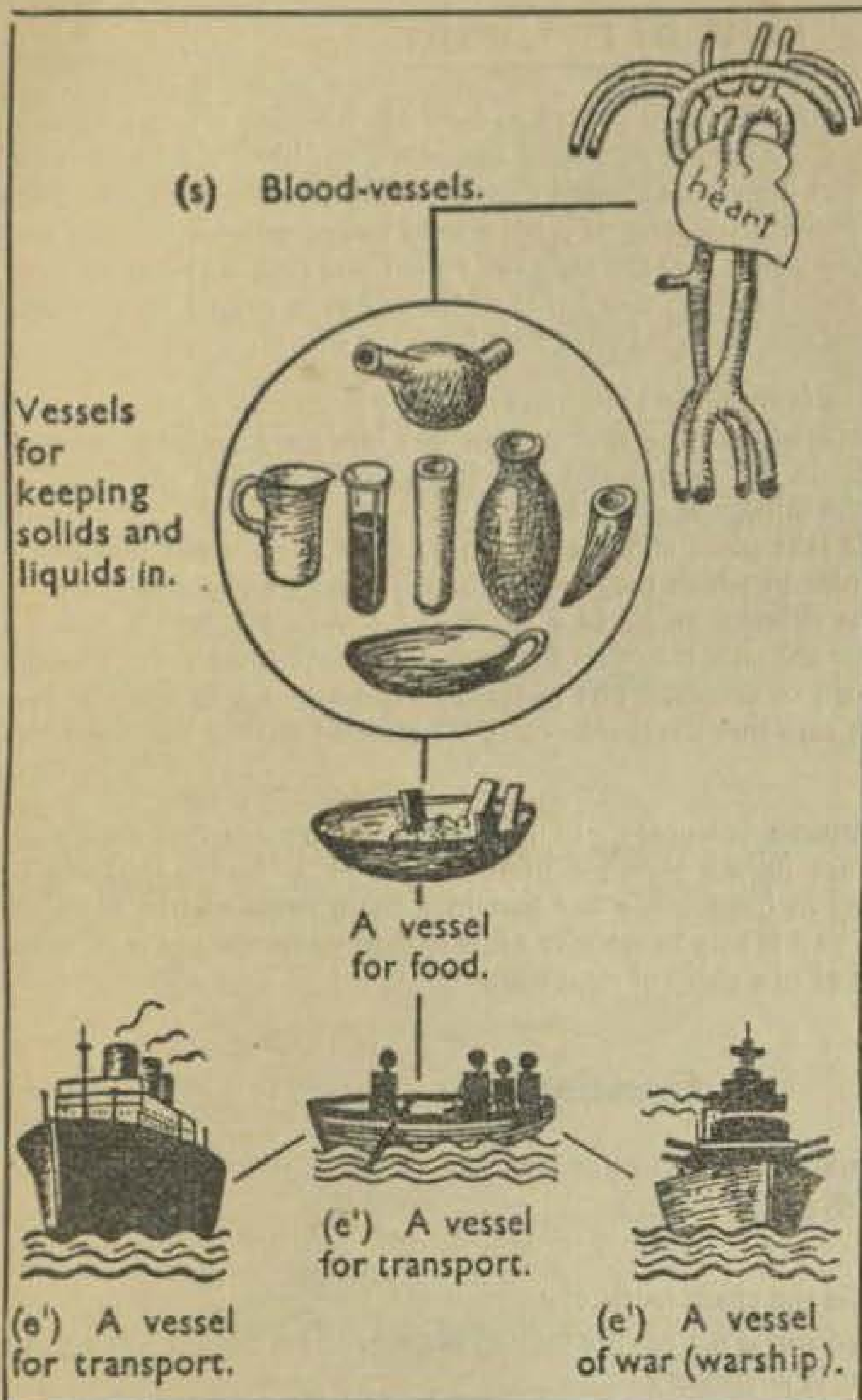
The boy is saying that it would be good to be with father and mother in the garden. The father is saying that it is good to keep away from the boys for a time. These are two sides of the question.

Writing
Make up parallel notes for back, like those given for the word side.



Questions on 'Side'

A1 : What part of the building is being pointed to?
2 : Has the building another side?
3 : Where is it?
4 : Why are you talking as if the building had only two sides, when there are four sides to a square?
5 : What are these names?
6 : Is there any front or back to the thing pictured by the side of the house?
7 : What number of sides has the last thing in the line?
8 : What make the limits round the space inside this structure?
9 : Here are two armies ready for a fight. They will be fighting in the space which is between them. What is that space limited by?
10 : So, in the fight, what are the two sides?
11 : And where are the two groups of men fighting in relation to one another?
B1 : Is the man pointing to his back or his chest?
2 : What is to be noted about the sides as parts of the body which puts one in mind of the back as a part of the body?
C1 : Here is a fight going on between the workers on one side and the owners of industry on the other. What is the feeling on the workers' side?
2 : And on the owners' side?
3 : They seem to have different views of the facts. Being on different sides in the fight for existence they no doubt see things from different angles. Are the father and mother taking a different view of something from the view taken by their two sons in the play-room?
4 : When we have seen the reaction of the father and mother outside in the garden to being parted from the boys and the reaction to the parting of the two boys inside the house, how much of the question have we seen?



Unit 86: Vessel

A. Root Sense :—In the middle of the picture is a circle with a number of things inside it. These things are vessels. Vessels are for keeping things in. For this reason all vessels are hollow.

B. Special Sense (blood-vessel) :—There is a special sort of vessel—a pipe like structure which goes to and from the heart. Vessels of this sort are blood-vessels. They are said to be vessels because they are hollow and the blood of the body is kept in them.

C. Expansion (ship) :—The middle vessel at the foot of the picture has persons inside it. This vessel is a vessel for transport. It is used on the sea. On the left of it is another transport vessel. This transport vessel takes persons and goods. The vessel on the right has guns; it is a vessel of war. In other words it is a war-ship. War-ships are sometimes used for transporting men.

Questions

A1 : In the middle of the picture is a circle with a number of things inside it. What are all these things?

2 : What is the purpose of vessels?

3 : For this reason, what is common to the form of all of them?

B1 : Take a look at the pipe-like structures which go to and from the heart. What are they?

2 : What is it about their form and use which makes us say they are vessels?

C1 : What does the middle vessel at the foot of the picture have inside it?

2 : And what is the special purpose of this vessel?

3 : Where is it used?

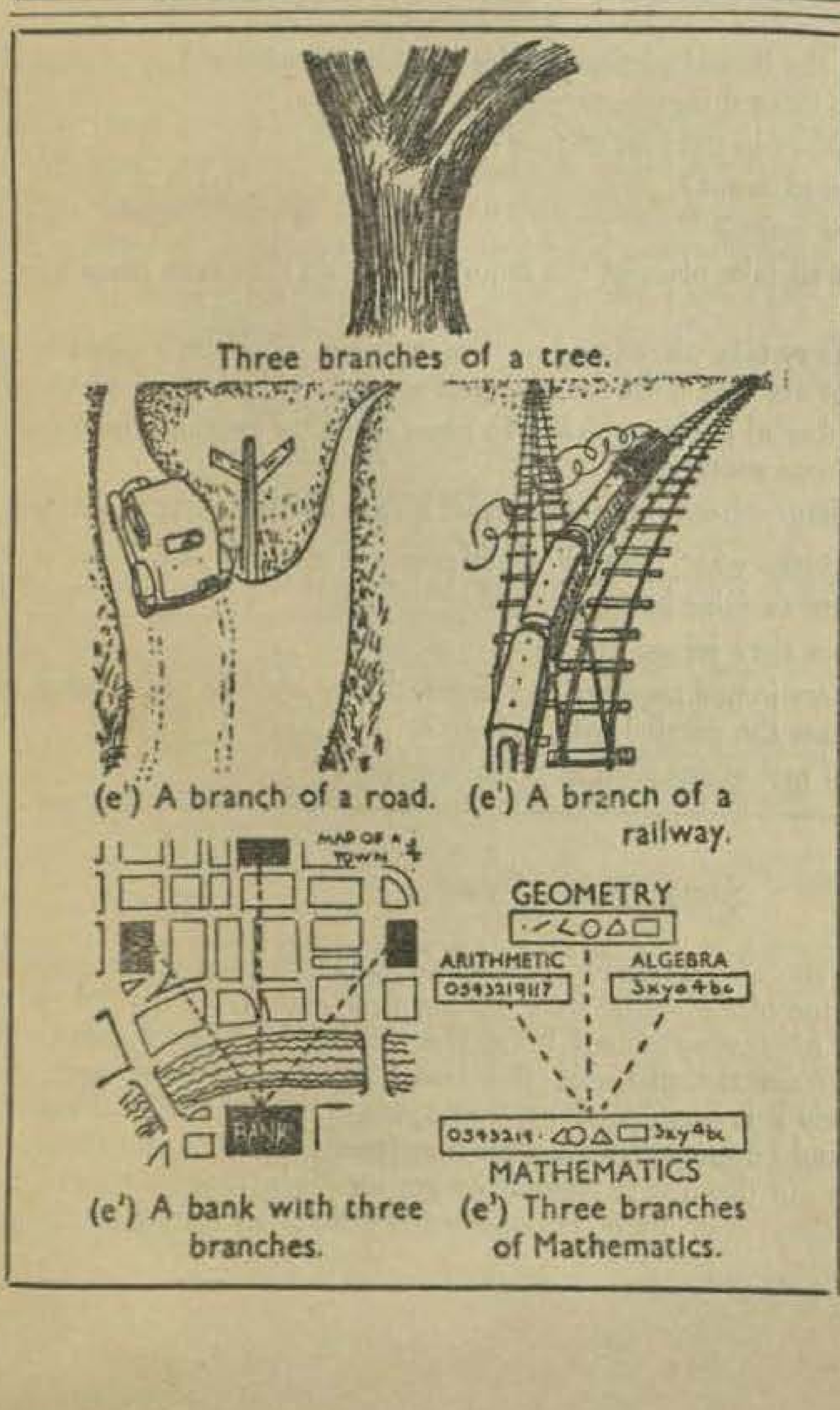
4 : What is the thing on the left of it?

5 : Does this vessel take only persons inside it?

6 : In what way is the great vessel on the right different from the vessel on the left?

7 : What is a shorter name for it?

8 : Are men transported in a war-ship?



Seatwork: Branch

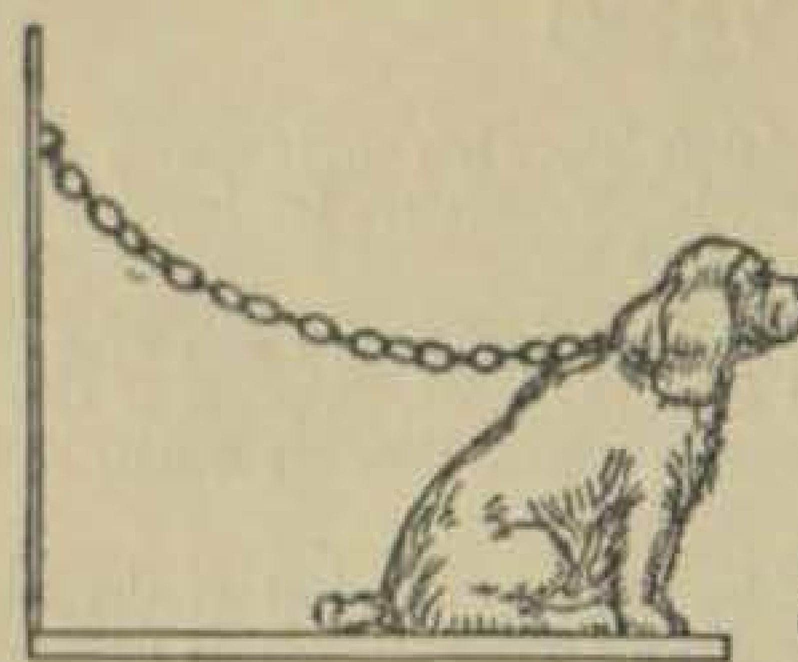
Put the right words in the spaces :

A. Root Sense :—Here is part of a .... The thick lower part is the .... The .... does not go all the way to the top. It comes to an end where the three thinner parts go off from it. These thinner parts are .... of the tree.

B. First Expansion (fork) :—The two narrow roads are joined to the wider road in the same way as the .... of the tree are joined to the thicker .... The automobile which is getting off the wide part of the road is going onto a .... of the road. In the same way the train is going onto a .... of the railway line.

C. Second Expansion (branch of a business) :—The picture on the left is a.... of a town. When you have a look at the .... your eyes first take in the four black parts. These black parts are joined by broken .... The .... go from one black part to the other three. The black part to which all the others are joined is greater than the other black parts and it has the word *bank* on it. The smaller black bits are banks as well, but they are smaller banks. The lines go from the great bank to the smaller banks. The small banks are .... of the greater bank. Naturally in a town there are no such lines between banks and their .... ; these lines are simply a way of picturing the relation between the four banks. They are a sign that the smaller banks are .... by the chief bank. There are no lines between the smaller banks because their only connection with one another is through the chief bank.

D. Third Expansion (division) :—The second picture is in one way like the first; there are three small frames joined by lines to a greater frame. But in place of banks you have sorts of knowledge. Arithmetic, geometry and algebra are all parts of mathematics; another way of saying this is that they are .... of mathematics.



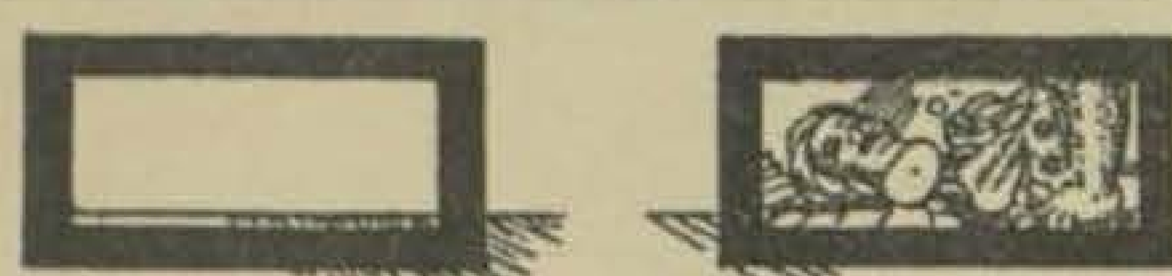
A dog on a chain.



(e') A natural chain of events.



(e²) A chain of mountains.



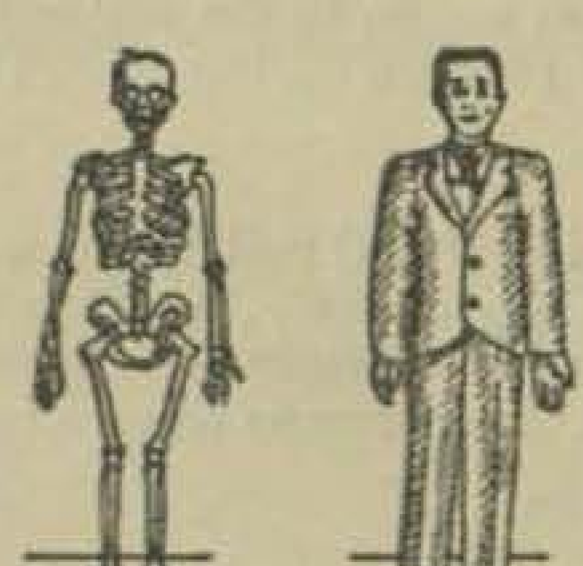
The frame of a picture.



The frame of a window.

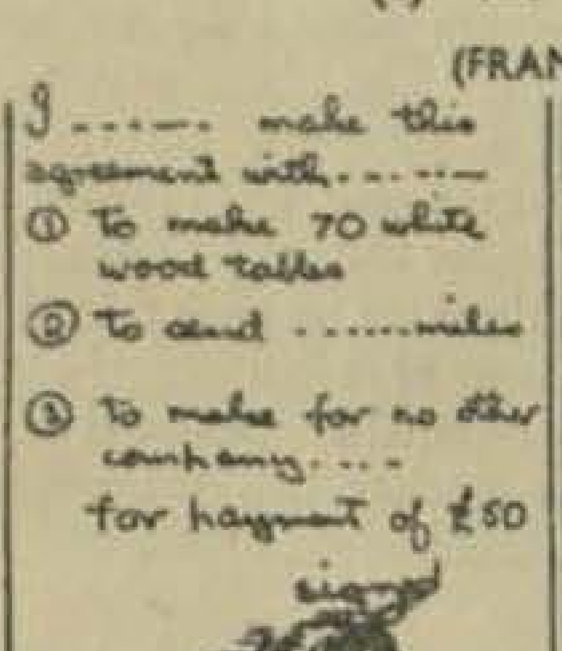


(e) The steel frame of a building.



(e) The frame of the body.

(FRAMING)



(e) Framing an agreement.



The agreement.

Unit 87: Chain

A. Root Sense :—This dog is not able to go for a run because it is on a chain. The chain is made of metal. Metal is very hard and is not readily twisted or bent. But a chain is not stiff, and it may be twisted round something like a cord. This is because a chain has a special structure. It is not a solid rod of metal but is formed of a number of rings. Every ring goes through and round one ring and has another ring going through and round it. So every ring of the chain is joined to the ring before and after it but is able to be moved separately from the others.

B. First Expansion (connection) :—Here are three rings of a chain. Inside each ring an event is pictured. In the first picture two birds are getting material for building their house. In the second, one bird is up in the air and the other is resting on its eggs. In the third, one of the birds is giving three young ones a meal. These events did not all take place at the same time ; they have taken place one after the other in the order in which they are pictured. The connection between them is that they are the different stages in a process of development. A number of events which take place one after the other and have a connection with one another may be said to be a chain of events. The pictures have been put in frames, like the parts of a chain, as a sign that the three events are joined together like the parts of a chain.

C. Second Expansion (range) :—In this picture there are three different mountain-tops. They are joined together in the form of a line. In addition they are like one another in form. We saw that in a chain parts of like form are joined together in a line, so it is easy to see why a line of mountains such as is pictured here is sometimes talked of as a chain of mountains.

Questions

A1 : What is the animal in the first picture ?
2 : Is the dog able to go for a run ?
3 : Why not ?
4 : What substance is the chain made of ?
5 : Metal is very hard and is not readily twisted or bent. Is it possible for a chain to be twisted round anything ?
6 : Why is that ?

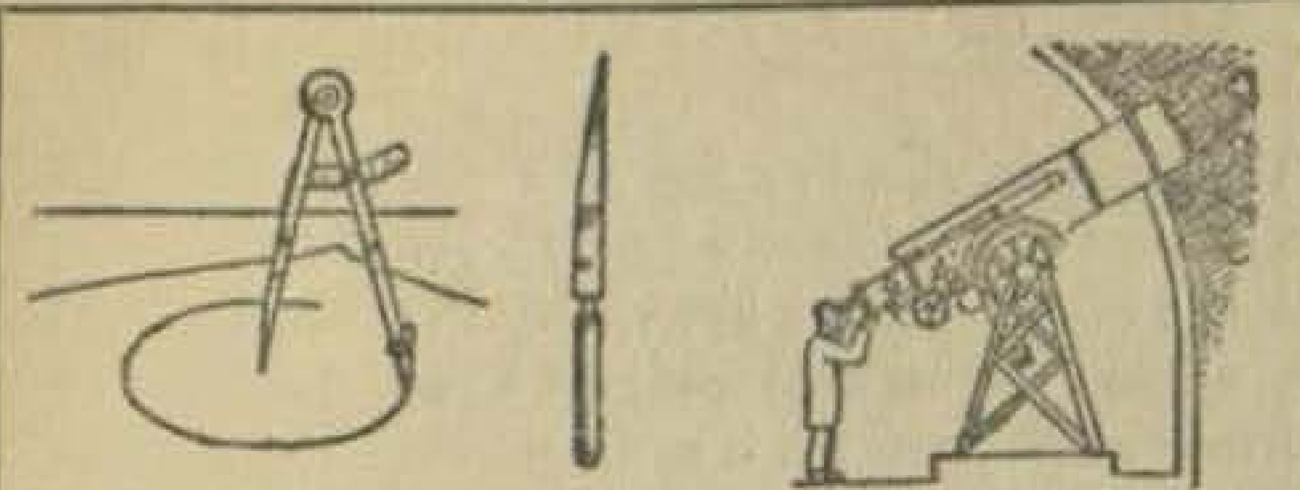
B1 : Have a look at the line of pictures under the picture of the dog. What is every one of the three things pictured ?
2 : What is taking place in the first picture ?
3 : What is the second event ?
4 : What is the third event ?
5 : Do these events all take place at the same time or do they take place in an order ?
6 : That's right. They take place in a line through time. Is there a connection between them, or are they quite separate and not dependent one on another ?
7 : What are a number of events which take place one after another and have a connection with one another ?
8 : Why have the pictures been put in frames which are like the parts of a chain ?

C1 : In the last picture, what number of different mountain-tops do you see ?
2 : Are they separate or joined together ?
3 : In what form are they joined ?
4 : The mountains are joined together in a line and they are like one another in form. Do you see the parallel with a chain ?
5 : What is a line of mountains such as is pictured here ?

Seatwork: Frame

The man is writing an . . . . In the form in which he is writing it the agreement is clearly not . . . . ; some of the words have not been put in. One may however see the general form of the agreement from the words which have been put down. We see that from the pictures, the frame of the building and the frame of the man's body it is possible to get some . . . . of what the complete building and body would be like. In the same way from the words of the agreement which have been put down it is possible to get some idea about the . . . . which will be put in later. For these reasons we say that the man is . . . . an agreement.

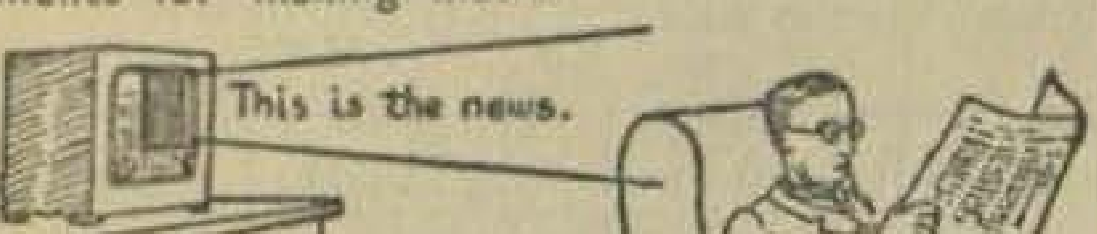
Unit 88: Instrument



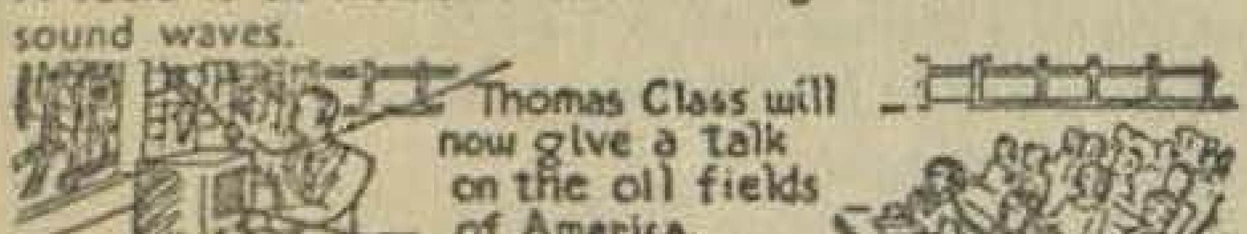
An instrument for making circles. A sharp instrument. An instrument for looking at the stars.



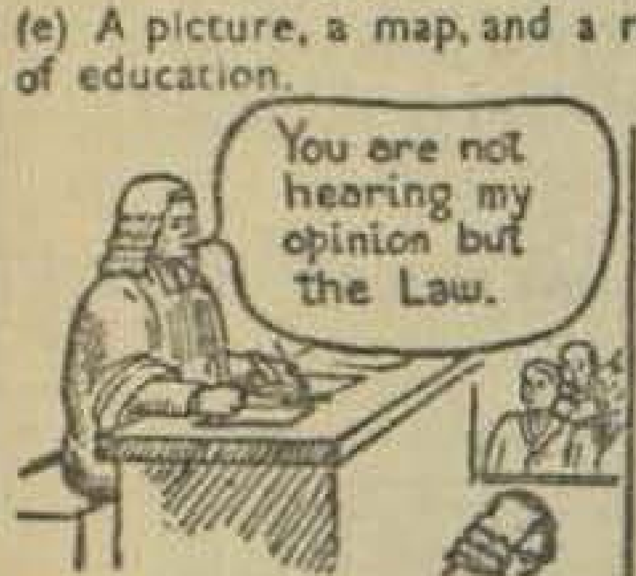
Instruments for making music.



A radio is an instrument for turning electric waves into sound waves.



(e) A picture, a map, and a radio may all be instruments of education.



(e) The judge is an instrument of the Law.



(e) Basic English is an instrument of international discussion.

A. Root Sense :—The first thing pictured here is used for making circles. To make clear that it is used for this purpose we say that it is an instrument for making circles. The second instrument is good for cutting things with, because it is a sharp instrument. The more complex thing at the end of the line, through which the man is looking, is an instrument for looking at the stars.

All the instruments in the second line are used in different ways for making music.

A radio is an instrument for making music, but this is not the only thing it is used for. In addition to this, it is used for giving talks and plays and news and so on. All these things are like one another in one way—they are sounds. But a radio is more than an instrument for making sounds. Many instruments make sounds, but they are not all radio instruments. A radio is an instrument for turning electric waves into sound waves.

B. Expansion (thing or person used as instrument) :—The boys and girls are having a radio talk on the oil fields of America. The teacher is using a radio for the purpose of education. The radio, that is to say, is an instrument of education. There are other things in the room which are being used as instruments of education by the teacher. They are the picture and the map.

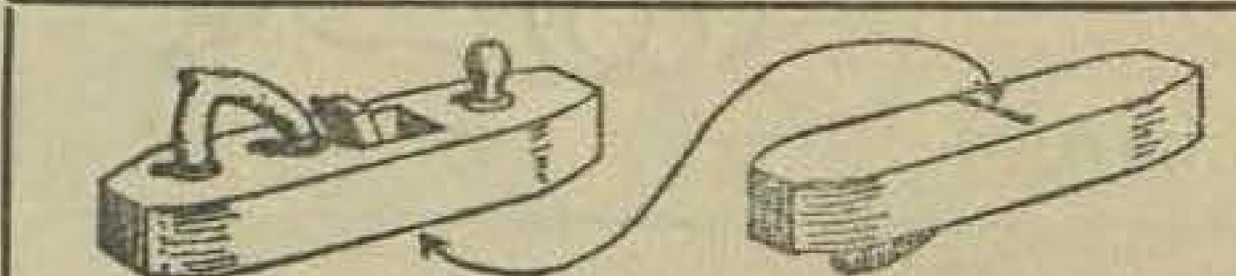
Even a pointer in the teacher's hand is, in a way, an instrument of education. We might go one step farther and say that the teacher himself is an instrument of education.

In the same way we may say that a judge, when he does the work for which he was made a judge, is an instrument of the law ; the special business of a judge is to put the law into operation. In the last picture Basic English is being used by an English boy and an Egyptian boy for international discussion. From this point of view Basic is an instrument of international discussion.

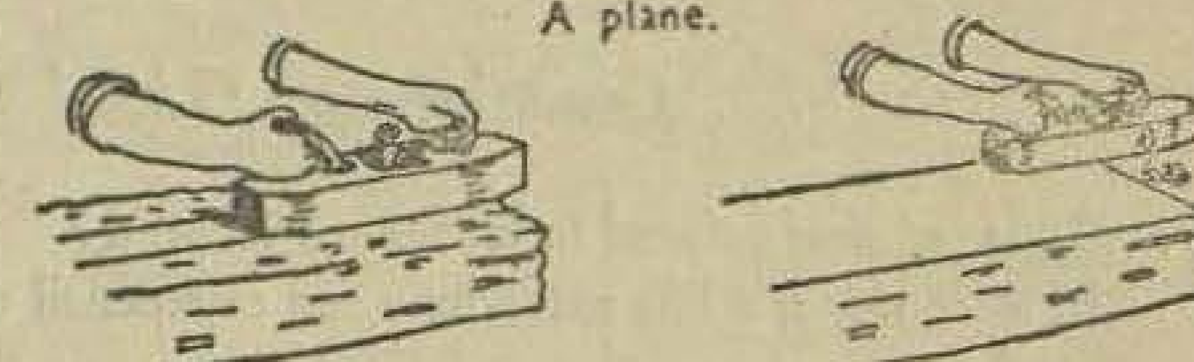
Writing
Make up notes for 'plane' like those given for 'instrument'.

Questions on 'Instrument'

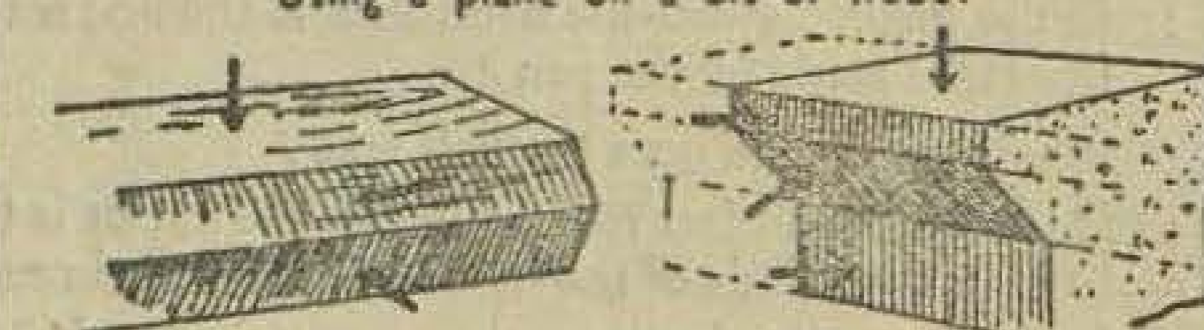
A1 : Have a look at the structure of the first thing on the page and at what has been made with its help. Has it a special use ?
2 : What do we say of it to make clear that it is used for this purpose ?
3 : Why is the instrument in the second picture good for cutting with ?
4 : What is the more complex thing at the end of the line through which the man is looking ?
5 : All the instruments in the second line are used in different ways for one purpose. What is it ?
6 : Is a radio an instrument for making music ?
7 : What other things is it used for ?
8 : In what way are all these things like one another ?
9 : Would it be clear that you were talking of a radio if you said that it was an instrument for making sounds ?
10 : Give an account of it which would make clear what you were talking about ?
B1 : For what purpose is the teacher using the radio ?
2 : In relation to the process of education, what is the radio ?
3 : What other things in the room are being used as instruments of education by the teacher ?
4 : And might we not even say that the pointer in his hand is an instrument of education ?
5 : And might we not go one step farther and say that the teacher himself is an instrument of education ?
6 : And, in the same way, a judge, when he does the work for which he was made a judge, is an instrument. What is he an instrument of ?
7 : What is the special business of the judge ?
8 : What is the special purpose of Basic which you see it being used for in the last picture ?
9 : So what is Basic ?



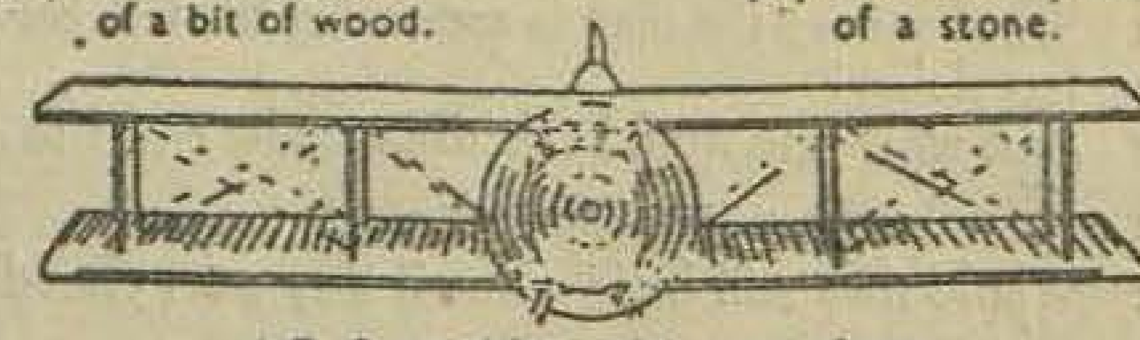
A plane.



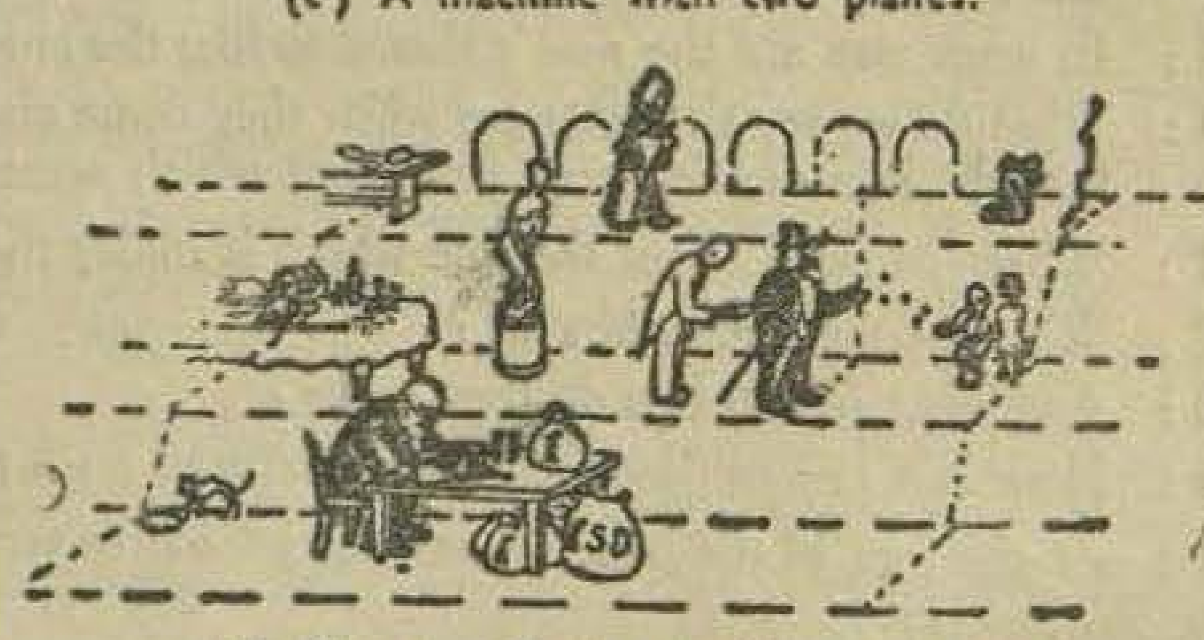
Using a plane on a bit of wood.



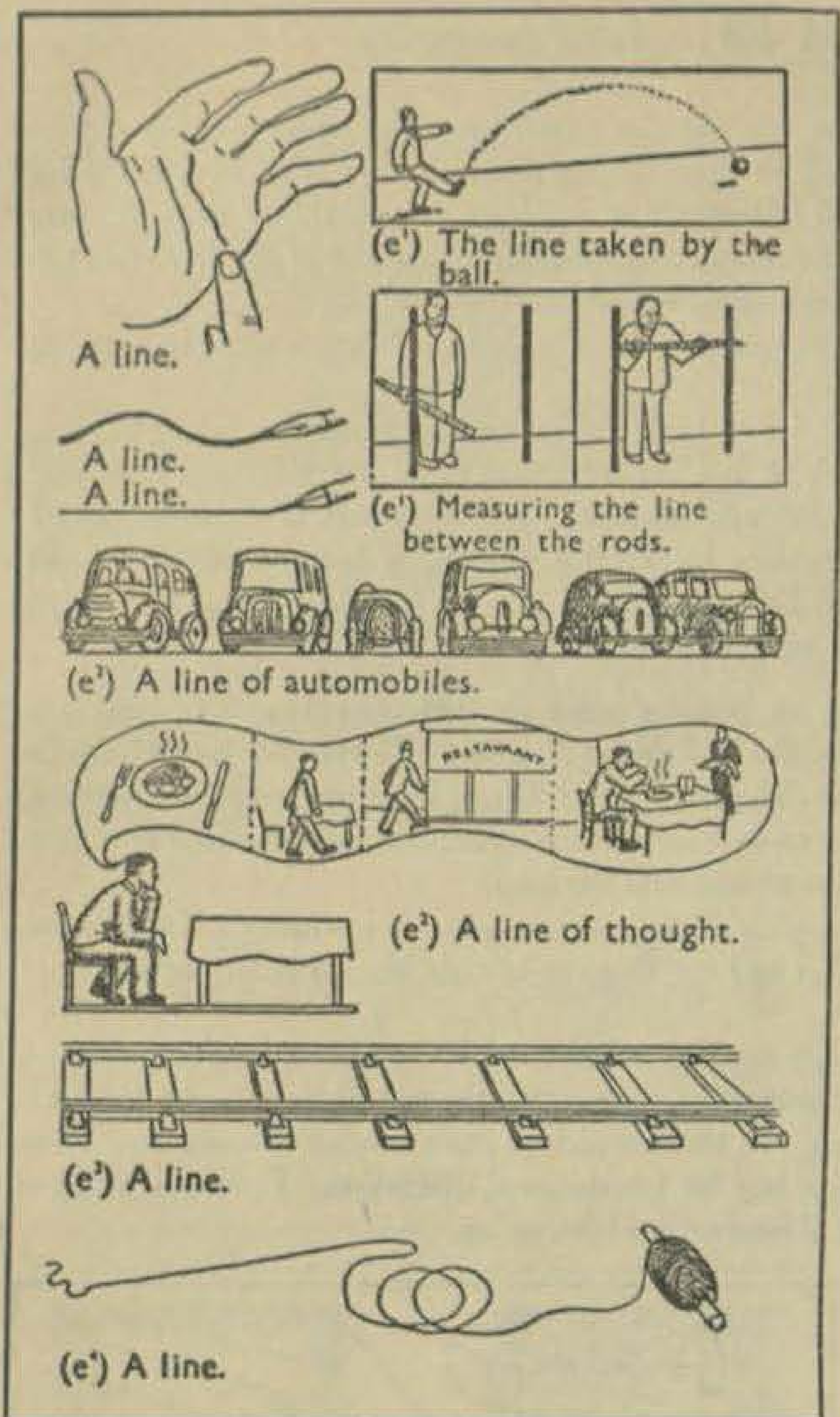
(e) Different planes of a bit of wood. (e') Different planes of a stone.



(e') A machine with two planes.



(e') They are living on different planes.



Unit 89: Line

A. Root Sense :—A finger is pointing to a line on a man's hand. A line made by a pen or pencil is different from a line on a hand ; a pencil line is simply a mark on paper, but a line on a hand goes into it like a cut. In the picture under the hand there are two more lines ; one has been made by a pen, the other by a pencil. The pen line is curved and the pencil line is straight.

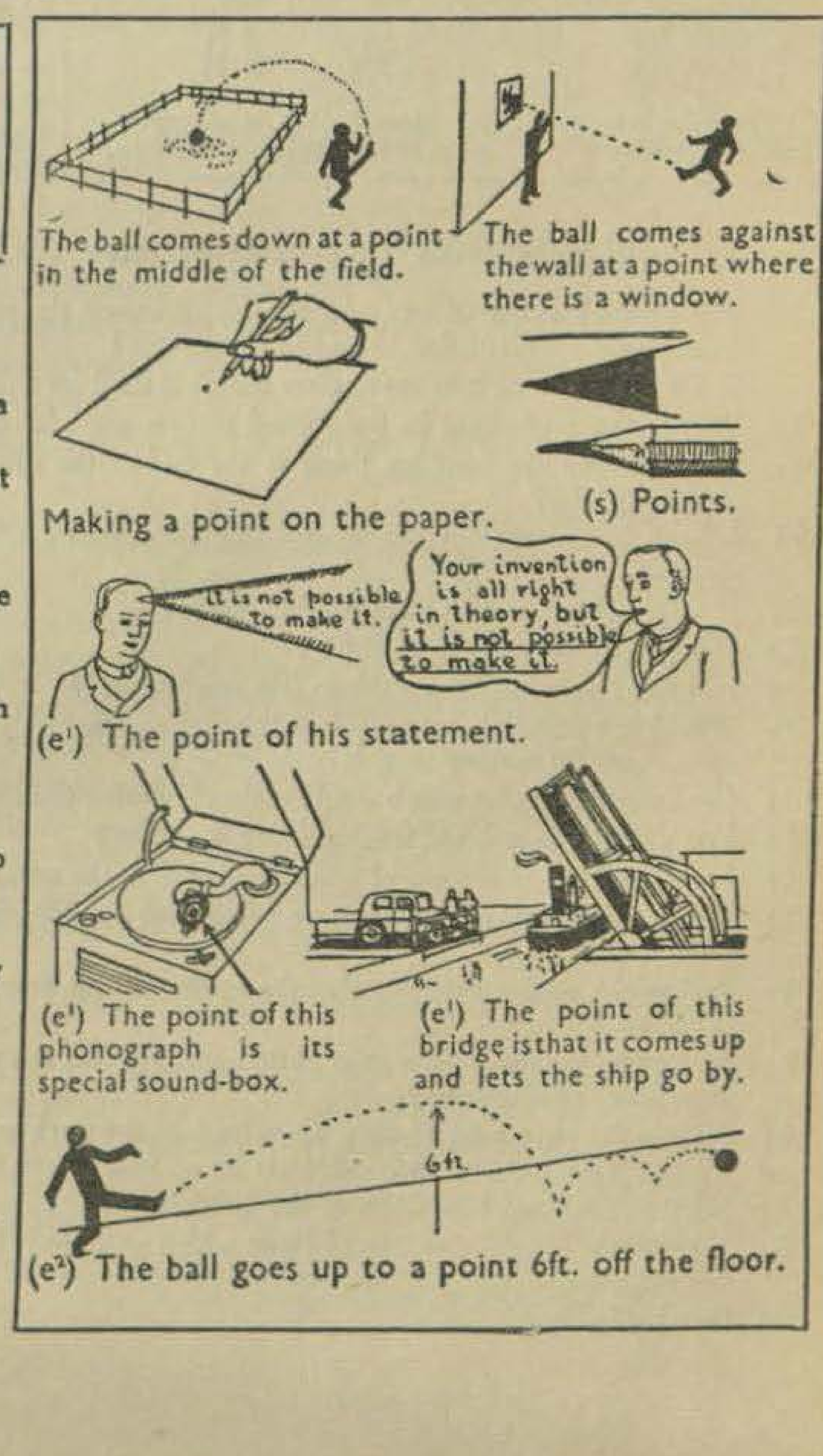
B. First Expansion (direction) :—On the right is a picture of a man kicking a ball. The ball takes a curving line. The ball does not in fact make a line in the air like this ; the line is only a picture in our minds of the motion of the ball through the air. In the same way, though there is no line between the two rods we may say that the line between them is being measured. The word *line* here has the sense of 'the shortest distance between' the two rods.

C. Second Expansion (line of things) :—These automobiles are placed in a line. They would still be in a line if they were placed end to end and not side to side. The automobiles come one after the other in space ; the thoughts of the man seated at the table come one after another in time. When thoughts come one after another in this way, and every thought is a development from that which went before it, we say that they are a line of thought.

D. Third Expansion (railway-line) :—This line is a structure formed of two parallel lines of steel. These lines of steel are rails for a train. They make a railway-line. On a map a railway-line is frequently pictured as one thin printed line, though in fact there are two rails.

E. Fourth Expansion (cord) :—This line is made of cord. If it had a hook on the end of it it would be a fishing-line.

Writing
Make up notes of the same sort for 'point.'



Questions on 'Line'

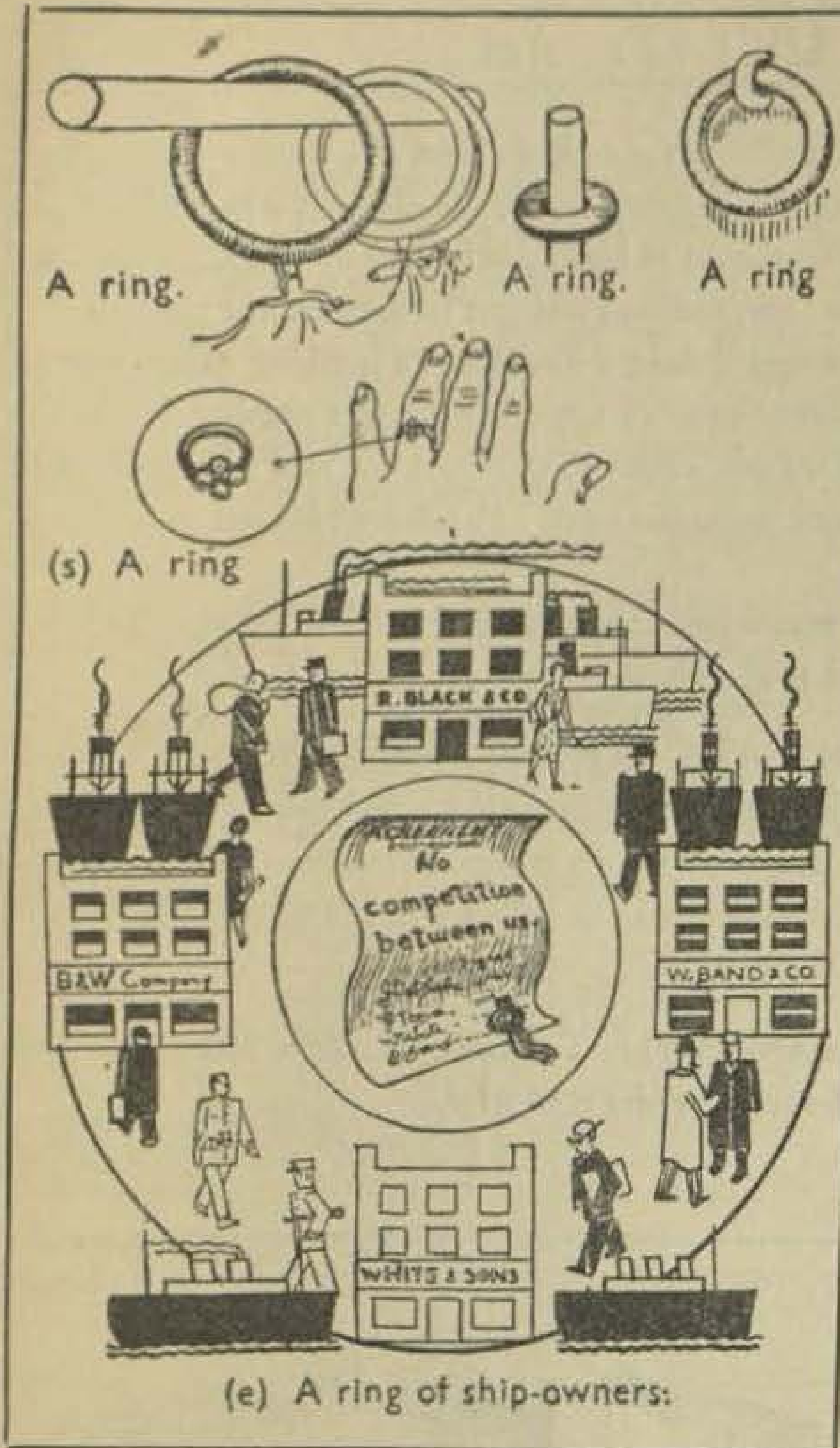
A1 : What is being pointed to on the man's hand ?
2 : In what way is a line made by a pen or a pencil different from a line on a hand ?
3 : In the picture under the hand how is the line made by the pencil different from that made by the pen ?
B1 : What sort of line does the ball take ?
2 : Does the ball in fact make a line in the air, or is this line only a picture we have in our minds of the motion of the ball through the air ?
3 : Is there any line between the two upright rods ?
4 : When we say the man is measuring the line between the rods, what is he in fact doing ?
5 : And what line would this distance be equal to ?
C1 : How are the automobiles placed ?
2 : Would they still be in a line if they were placed end to end and not side to side ?
3 : In what way are the man's thoughts like the automobiles ?
4 : What do we say thoughts are when they come one after another and every thought is a development from that which went before it ?
D1 : What is special about the line which is under the line of thought ?
2 : What are these lines of steel ?
3 : And what sort of line do they make ?
4 : How is a railway-line frequently pictured on a map ?
E1 : At the foot of the page is something looking very like a curving pen-line. What is it ?
2 : What is it made of ?
3 : If it had a hook on the end of it what sort of line would it be ?

Unit 90: Ring

A. Root Sense :—In this line there are five rings. Though they are all in the form of a circle, the form of every ring is not the same in every detail. The rings are not all of the same size, and the one on the upright rod is flat.

B. Special Sense (finger-ring) :—On one of the fingers of the hand is a ring. This ring has some jewels on the front of it. It is the sort of ring which is used as an ornament. There are a great number of different sorts of rings, such as curtain-rings and rubber-rings, but those which are generally dearest and are given most attention are finger-rings. So if you came back from a walk in the town and said you had seen a number of rings in the window of a store it would probably be clear to your hearers that these rings were finger-rings.

C. Expansion (business ring) :—The rings at which we have been looking so far have been made of one solid band of material. The ring in the last picture, however, is formed of a number of different things. These are the offices of four ship-owners, with workers, sellers, and others coming and going between them. These persons and buildings are grouped round an agreement not to have any competition with one another. In addition they are joined together by this agreement. Such an agreement makes these different businesses into a business ring. A business ring is not a solid thing like the other rings on this page ; it is only a relation between the four businesses.



(e) A ring of ship-owners:

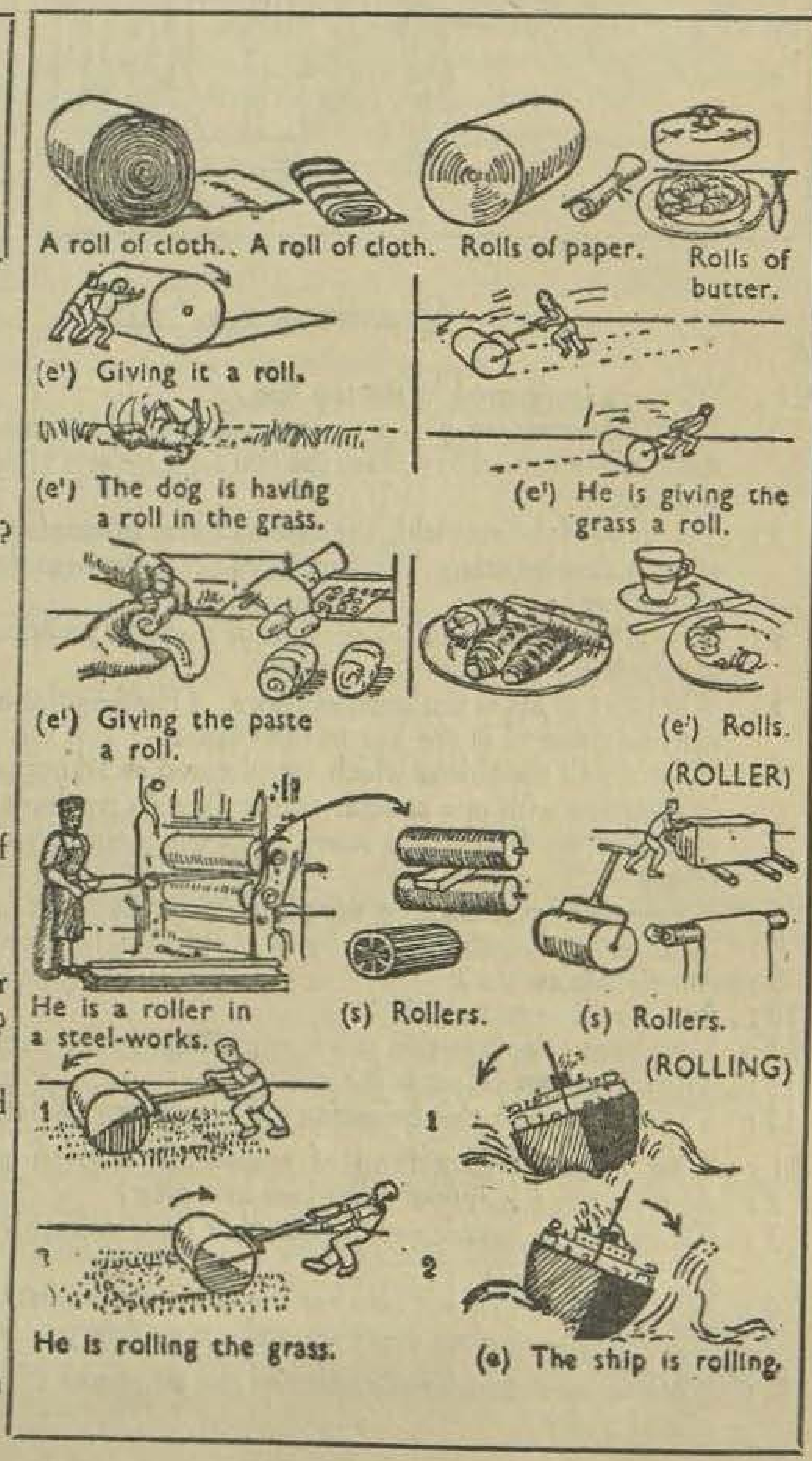
Writing
Make up notes of the same sort for 'roll.'

Questions on 'Ring'

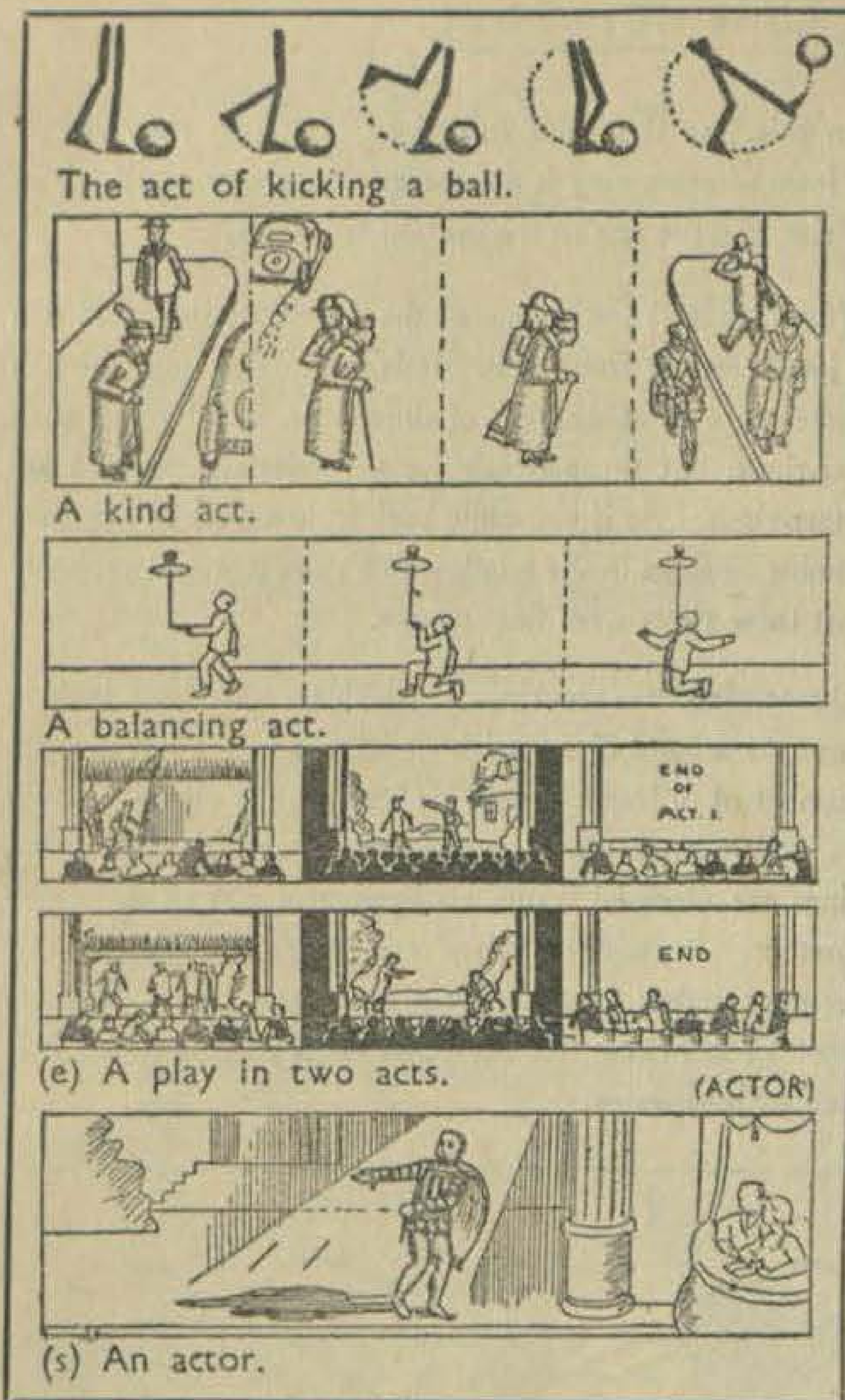
A1 : On the top line there are five things of the same sort.
2 : Is the form of these things a square, a circle, or a straight line ?
3 : All the rings are circles but is the form of every ring the same in every detail ?
4 : In what way is the ring on the upright rod different from the others ?
5 : And are the rings all the same size ?

B1 : What is on one of the fingers of the hand ?
2 : What do you see on the front of this ring ?
3 : What is this sort of ring used as ?
4 : There are a great number of different sorts of rings. Say what some of them are.
5 : What sort of rings are generally dearest and given most attention ?
6 : So if you came back from a walk in the town and said you had seen a number of rings in the window of a store, what sort of rings would these probably be ?

C1 : The rings we have been looking at so far have been made of one solid band of material. What is different about the ring in the last picture ?
2 : What are the things forming the ring ?
3 : What are these persons and buildings grouped round ?
4 : What are they joined together by ?
5 : What does the agreement make these different businesses into ?
6 : Is this business ring a solid thing like the other rings on the page or a relation between the four businesses ?



Unit 91: Act



The act of kicking a ball.

A kind act.

A balancing act.

(e) A play in two acts.

(ACTOR)

(s) An actor.

A. Root Sense :—The top line is a picture of the act of kicking a ball. These pictures are like a motion picture ; they make clear the different stages of the act. From these pictures we see that the act of kicking is formed by two separate acts : first the foot is lifted from the floor, and then it is sent forward against the ball.

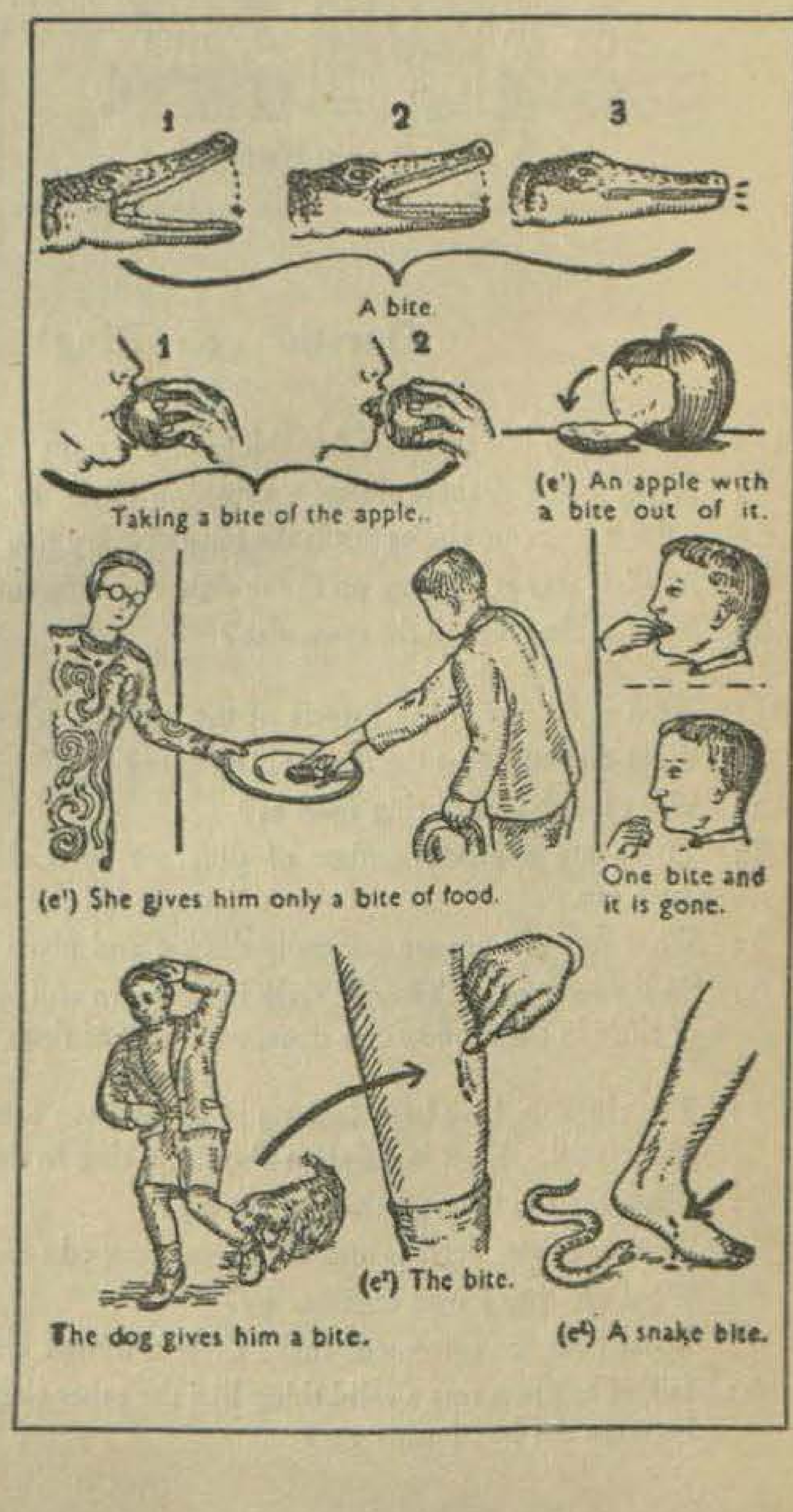
In the second picture the man is doing a kind act ; he is taking an old woman across the road. This is another complex act, made up of a number of simpler acts. The man sees the old woman waiting to go across the road ; he goes up to her and takes her arm ; he gets her across safely ; he takes off his hat as a sign of respect ; and he goes away.

In the third picture the man is balancing a hat on the end of a stick. This is a balancing act. He is doing it to give amusement.

B. Expansion (division of a play) :—A balancing act is a form of amusement. A more complex form of amusement which is given on a stage, in a theatre, is a play. A play normally has two or more divisions. These divisions are said to be acts. The curtain goes up before every act and comes down after it.

C. Special Sense (stage-actor) :—The man who does acts on a stage and whose acts are part of the acts of a play is an actor.

Writing
Give an account, in writing, of the senses of the word 'bite.'



A bite

Taking a bite of the apple.

(e') An apple with a bite out of it.

(e') She gives him only a bite of food.

One bite and it is gone.

The dog gives him a bite.

(e') The bite.

(e') A snake bite.

Questions on 'Act'

A 1 : What act is pictured in the top line ?
2 : These pictures are like a motion picture. They make clear the different stages of the act. Do you see the two separate acts of which the act of kicking is formed ?
3 : Yes, most of the acts which are talked about as simple are formed of a number of even simpler acts. What complex act is the man doing in the second line of pictures ?
4 : Now give a more detailed account of this act, pointing out the simpler acts of which it is formed.
5 : What sort of act is the complete act ? (The impulse or feeling by which the man was moved is the key to the answer.)
6 : What do all the things which are pictured as taking place on this page have in common with one another which they do not have in common with such events as the falling of a stone down the mountain-side or the motion of a river ?
7 : If something was done by an animal, would it be an act ?
8 : So an act is something done by what is living, by a person or animal ?
9 : Are all acts events ?
10 : And are all events acts ?
11 : Now have a look at this third act. What is the man doing ?
12 : Then what sort of act is it ?
13 : The man is doing this balancing act on a stage. What is his purpose ?
B 1 : What more complex form of amusement is given on a stage in a theatre ?
2 : And are there frequently divisions in a play ?
3 : We saw that a complex act is formed of separate acts. What are the divisions of a play ?
4 : What number of such acts has the play in the picture ?
5 : What goes up before every act and comes down after it ?
C : What is the man who does acts on the stage and whose acts are part of the acts of a play ?



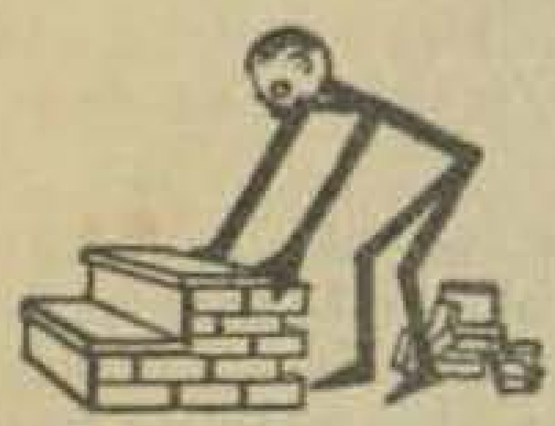
A step.



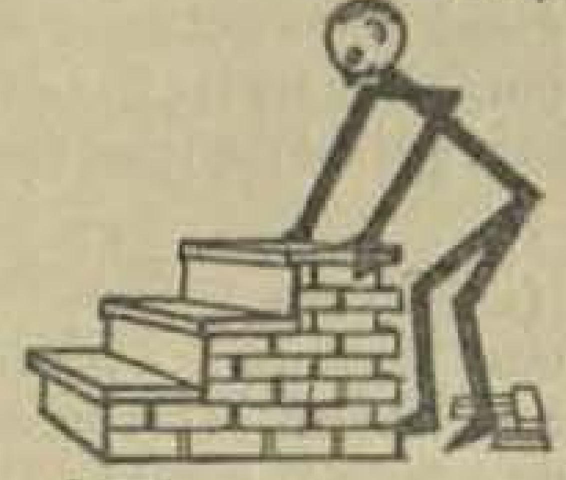
A dance step.



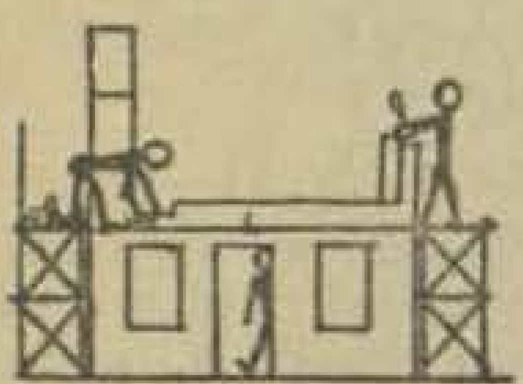
(e') Going up a step.



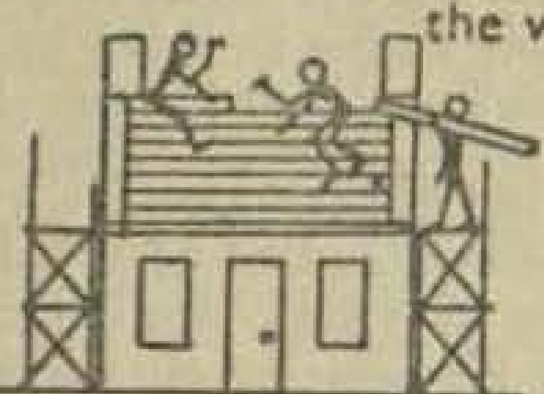
(e') The man is building steps.



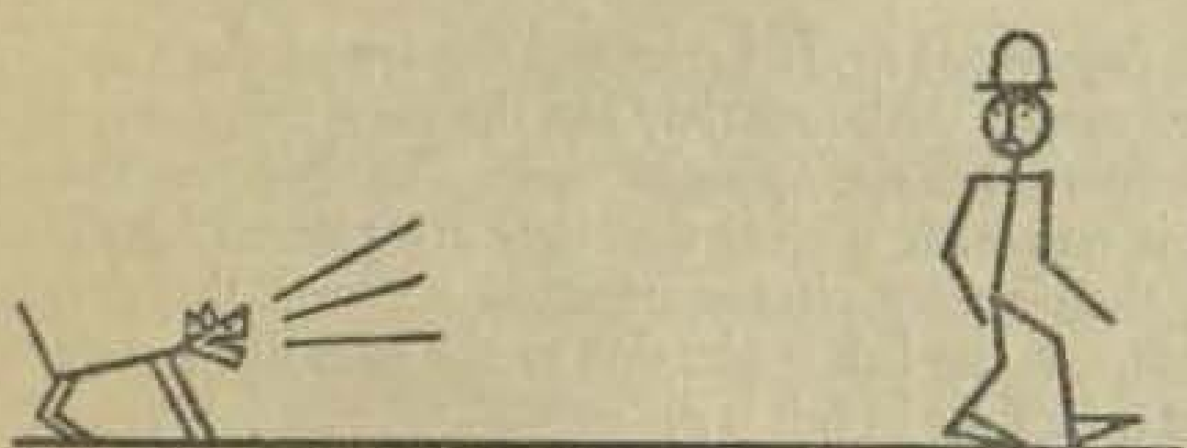
(e') He is a step farther forward with the work



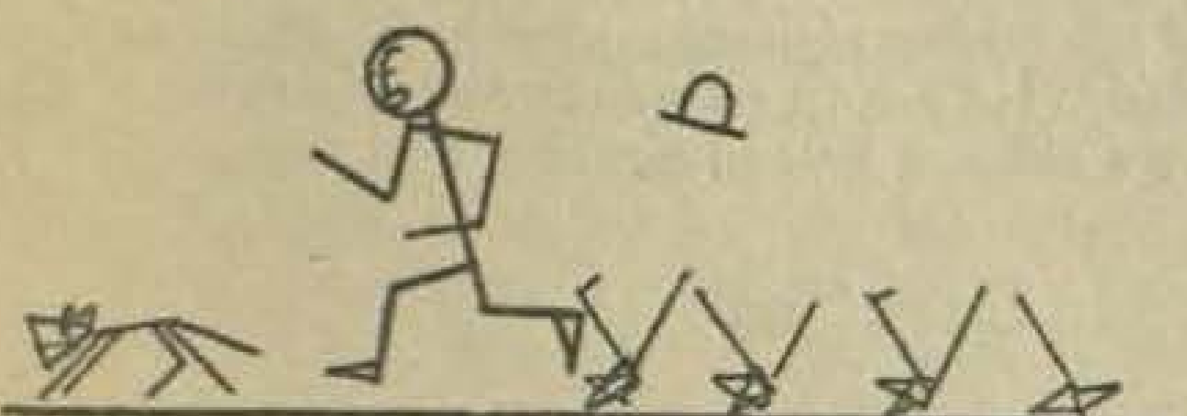
The workmen are building a house.



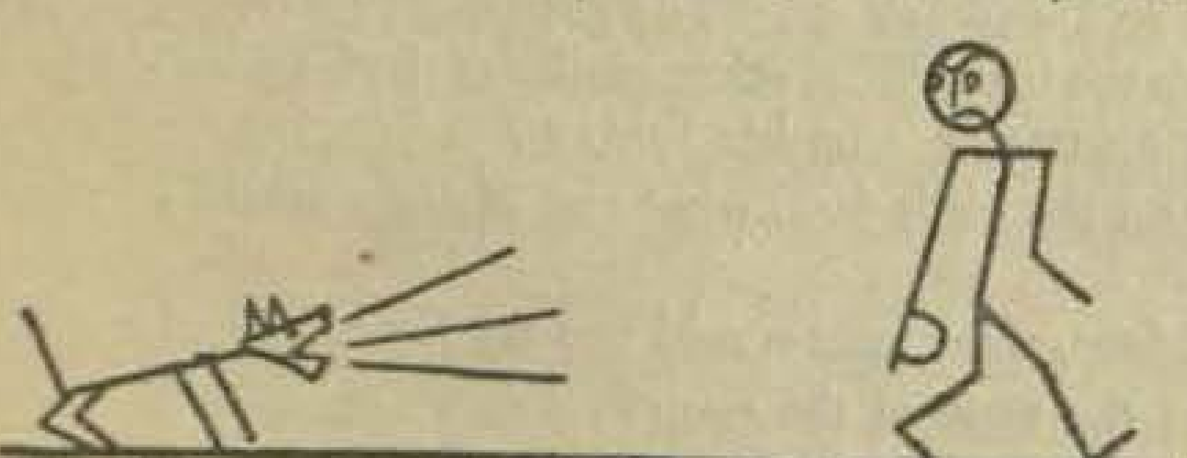
(e') They are a step farther forward with the work.



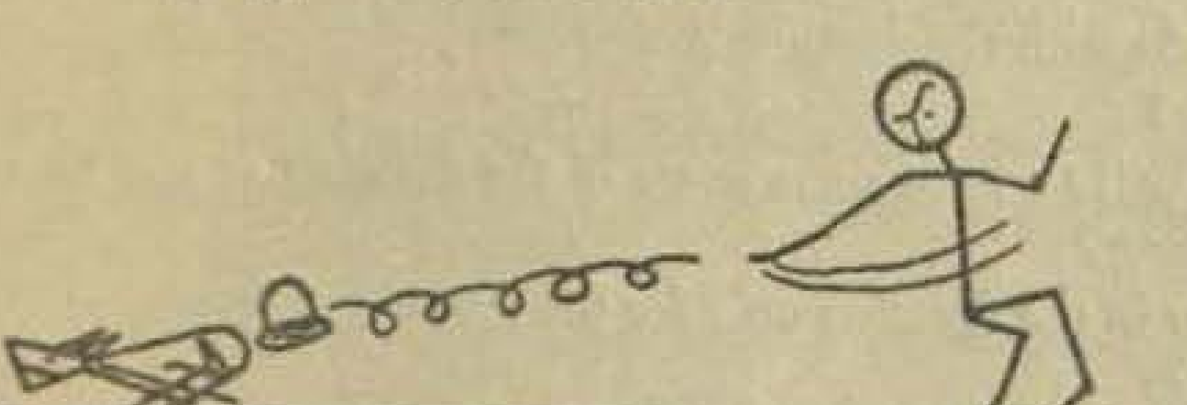
The dog makes a noise.



The man takes steps to make it quiet.



The dog again makes a noise



(e') The man takes steps to make it quiet.

Unit 92: Step

A. Root Sense :—The first matchstick man is taking a step. If he went on taking more steps of the same sort he would be walking. In taking a step the legs and the feet are moved. The step in the second picture is a dance step. Here the two matchstick men are moving their legs and feet and their hands and arms. A dance step is more complex than a step taken in walking, because dancing is a more complex sort of motion than walking.

B. First Expansion (step) :—We may take steps in different directions; we may take a step forward, or back, or up or down. When we take a step up or down we go up or down a step. This sort of step is not an act; it is a structure for stepping on in going from one level to another. Most buildings have steps between the different floors. These steps are made of stone or wood as a rule, and fixed in their place. There are other steps which may be taken from place to place. These are used for building work, or for putting pictures up on a wall, or hanging curtains from a rod over a window.

C. Second Expansion (stage) :—In the second picture in the second line the man who is building steps has got a step farther forward with the work.

In the third line there are two pictures of men building a house. In the second picture the house is more complete than in the first house. The men are a step farther forward with the work. This is not to say that they have been building a step; a step in this sense is an act which takes one a little way forward, and these men have got forward a little with their work.

D. Third Expansion (take steps) :—The dog is making a noise, so the man is taking steps to make it quiet. When the dog again makes a noise the man does not take steps in its direction; he sends his hat after it. Although he has not in effect taken steps we say that in sending his hat after the dog he has taken steps to make it quiet. The act of sending the hat after the dog is like the act of taking steps in the direction of the dog, because the two acts have the same effect on the dog; they make it quiet. If the dog had given the man a bite and had made a hole in his trousers the man would have taken steps to put the damage right. For example he might have got a needle and thread and put some stitches in the trousers.

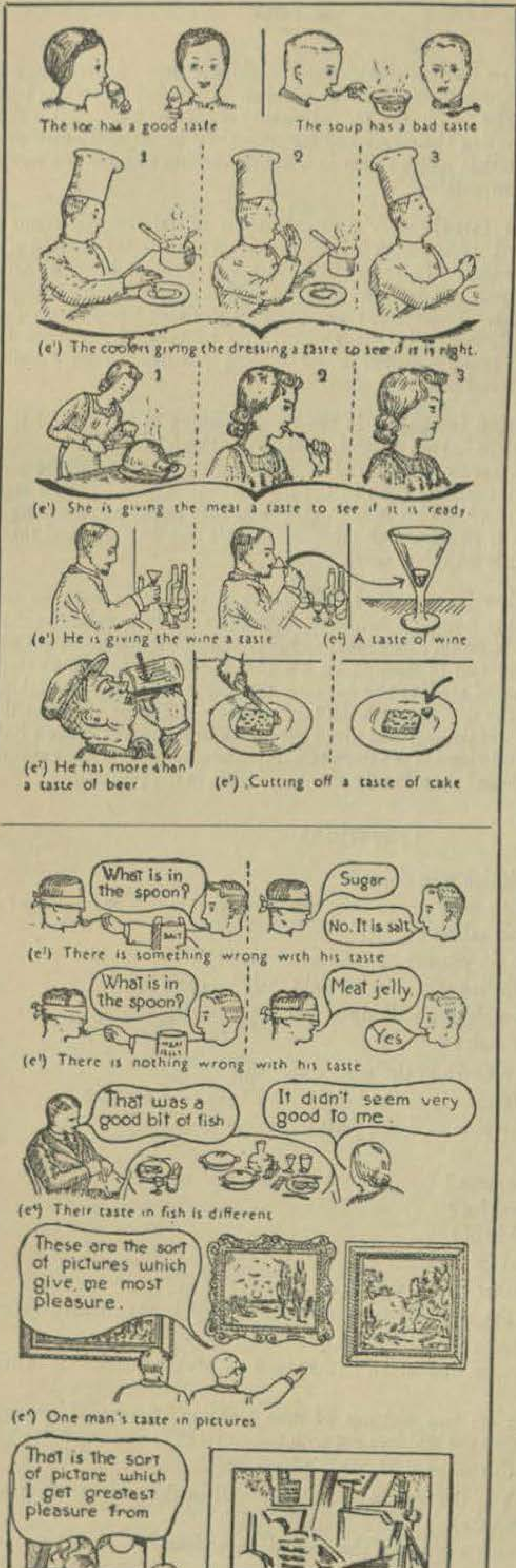
Questions

A1 : What is the matchstick man doing?
2 : If he went on taking more steps of the same sort what would he be doing?
3 : What are moved in taking a step?
4 : What sort of step do you see in the second picture?
5 : Are the two matchstick men moving only their legs and feet?
6 : Which is more complex—a walking-step or a dance step?
7 : Why is it more complex?

B1 : Are all the steps we take in the same direction?
2 : What are the different directions in which we may take a step?
3 : When we take a step up or down what do we go up or down?
4 : What is a step?
5 : Where do you see steps?
6 : What are they used for?
7 : What are they made of?
8 : Are all steps fixed in one place?
9 : What are these other steps used for?
10 : Have a look at the second line of pictures. What is the matchstick man doing?

C1 : In the second picture, how much farther forward has the matchstick man got with the work?
2 : Under this there are two pictures of men building a house. How much farther forward have the builders got with the house in the second picture?
3 : Why do we say this when they haven't been building a step?

D1 : Now have a look at the man and the dog. When the dog makes a noise what does the man do?
2 : When the dog makes a noise the second time does he take steps in its direction?
3 : Keeping in mind the purpose of this act, what do we say he has done?
4 : In what way is the act of sending the hat after the dog like the act of taking steps in the direction of the dog?



Unit 93: Taste

A. Root Sense:—On a warm day we take ices because they are cold. It is a quality of ice to be cold. The girl would be conscious of that if she put her finger on it. There is another quality of the ice which she becomes conscious of when she takes some of it on her tongue. This quality is its taste. Judging by the look on the girl's face it seems that the ice has a good taste. Judging by look on the boy's face it seems that the soup has a bad taste. The boy gets the taste of the soup by putting some of it in a spoon. If the taste had been good he would probably have taken some more.

B. First Expansion (act of tasting):—The cook is getting a meal ready. He is making the dressing for the meat. To see if the taste is right he gets some of the dressing on his little finger and puts it in his mouth. If the taste is good he will not take some more of the dressing ; he will make use of it in his cooking. He put his finger in it only for the purpose of tasting its taste. He was giving it a taste. In the same way the woman who is getting the meat ready is giving it a taste to see if it is well cooked.

C. Second Expansion (small amount):—The man who is giving the wine a taste takes only a very small amount. He is not taking it because his throat is dry, but so as to get the taste of the wine in his mouth. That is to say, he is not having a drink of wine but only a taste of the wine. In other words we may say that a small amount of wine is a taste of wine.

But the workman in the last line is not having only a taste of beer ; he is having a good long drink. He is certainly tasting beer, but he is doing more than give it a taste. In the last picture someone is cutting off a taste of the cake.

D. Third Expansion (sense of taste):—At the top of this picture there is a man with a cloth put round his eyes so that he is not able to see. By using his sense of taste only he has to say what substance is being offered to him. Clearly there is something wrong with his sense of taste, because though the substance which is offered to him is salt he says that it is sugar !

Here the word *taste* is being used not for the quality which the salt has but for the man's power of experiencing this quality.

The second man is given the same sort of test and gets the answer right. We may therefore say that there is nothing wrong with his taste. The substance he is tasting is meat-jelly.

E. Fourth Expansion (opinion):—The man and woman at the table have been having some fish for their meal. Although they had the same fish the man says that it was good, but the woman takes the opposite view. As they had the same fish and their sense of taste is normal it is clear that they are pleased by different things. There seems to be then a very clear connection between the degree of approval and the sense of taste. If the fish is pleasing to the man but not pleasing to the woman we may say that their taste in fish is different.

In the same way one man may get pleasure from one sort of picture ; another man may get pleasure from a different sort of picture. The first has a taste for pictures of fields and trees and other things of the countryside ; the other gets pleasure from pictures which have a design but are not representative of the forms of natural things. These two men have a different taste in pictures.

Questions

A1 : Why do we take ices on a warm day ?
2 : Yes, it is a quality of an ice to be cold. The girl would be conscious of that if she put her finger on the ice. What other quality of the ice does she become conscious of by taking some of it on her tongue ?
3 : Judging by the look on the girl's face, what sort of taste would you say the ice had ?
4 : Judging by the boy's face, what taste would you say the soup had ?
5 : How did the boy get the taste of the soup ?
6 : If the taste had been good, would he have taken some more ?

B1 : What does the cook do with the dressing ?
2 : Why does he do this ?
3 : If the taste is good, will he have some more of the dressing or will he make use of it in his cooking ?
4 : Yes, he put his finger in the dressing only for the purpose of testing its taste ? So what is he doing ?
5 : And what is the woman doing to the meat which she is cooking ?

(*See opposite page.*)

Unit 94: Blow



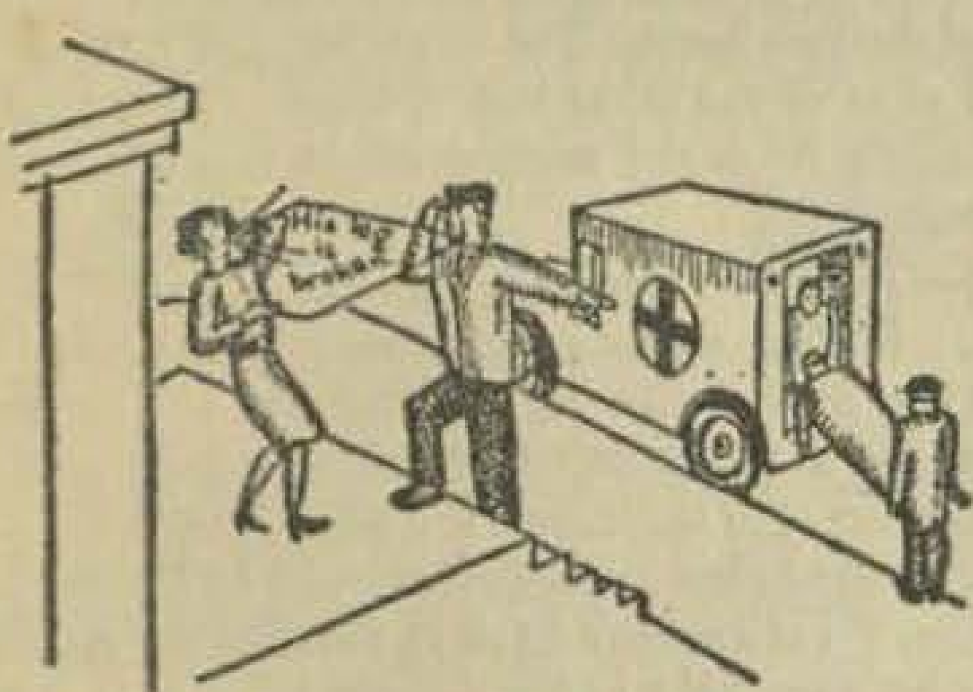
A blow.



(e^1) A blow of wind.



(e^1) He gives his nose a blow.



(e^2) The bad news was a great blow to her.

A. Root Sense :—The man on the left is falling. The other man is pushing him, with his hand, in the chest. The push is a hard push. A hard push is a blow.

B. First Expansion (blow of wind) :—The man in the second picture is falling as well, but no one seems to be pushing him or giving him a blow. There are signs, however, that some force is pushing against the stem and branches of the tree ; they are bent in the same direction and the leaves are all going through the air in the same direction. Other things which are being pushed are the man's hat and the paper. All these—the leaves, the hat, and the paper—are being pushed through the air by the wind. The blow which is sending the man over is a blow of wind. There is another man seated at a table. Some of the papers which were on the table are up in the air. They are being pushed off the table by a current of air. The current of air seems to be going from the nose of the man who is seated at the table, because he is giving his nose a blow.

C. Second Expansion (shock) :—In the last picture we see a stretcher being lifted out of an automobile. On the stretcher is a man. He is on a stretcher because his leg is broken. This is what the man on the step is saying. He is giving the news to the woman. She is taking a step back as if she was falling. She has almost been sent over, because the news is a great blow to her.

Questions

A 1: In the top picture, what is the man on the left doing ?

2: Is something pushing him ?

3: What is pushing him ?

4: Where is he being pushed ?

5: Is it a hard push or a soft push ?

6: What did the man do to give him a hard push ?

B 1: What is the man in the second picture doing?

2: So was the man in the top picture. Is anyone pushing him ?

3: What sign is there that some force is pushing against the stem and branches of the tree ?

4: And what sign is there that the leaves are being pushed by something ?

5: And what sign is there that the man's hat and the paper are being pushed ?

6: Have you any idea what is pushing against the man and the tree and sending the hat and the paper and the leaves through the air ?

7: What sort of blow is sending the man over ?

8: In the picture on the right, are all the papers on the table ?

9: What seems to be pushing them off the table ?

10: Where does it come from ?

11: How is he making the current of air ?

C 1: In the last picture, what do you see being lifted out of the automobile on a stretcher ?

2: Why isn't he walking ?

3: How do you have knowledge of that ?

4: To whom is he giving the news ?

5: What effect is the news having on her ?

6: Why is she almost falling ?

Questions on 'Taste'

C 1: How much wine does the man take when he is giving it a taste ?

2: Does he take it because his throat is dry ?

3: In other words, he gives himself not a drink of wine, but what ?

4: What, then, is a small amount of wine ?

5: Is the workman having only a taste of beer ?

6: So though he is certainly tasting beer, he is doing more than give it a taste ?

7: How much of the cake is the knife cutting off it ?

D 1: Under this there is a picture of a man with a cloth put round his eyes so that he is not able to see. He has to say what substance is being offered him by the use of only one sense. Which is it ?

2: Does he give the substance its right name ?

3: What is the reason for his error ?

4: Are you using the word *taste* here for the quality which the salt has, or for the man's power of experiencing it ?

5: The second man is given the same sort of test and gets the answer right. What do we say about him ?

6: What is the substance he is tasting ?

E 1: The man and woman at the table have been having some fish for their meal. Have they the same opinion about it ?

2: But they had the same fish. If their sense of taste is normal why are their reactions so different ?

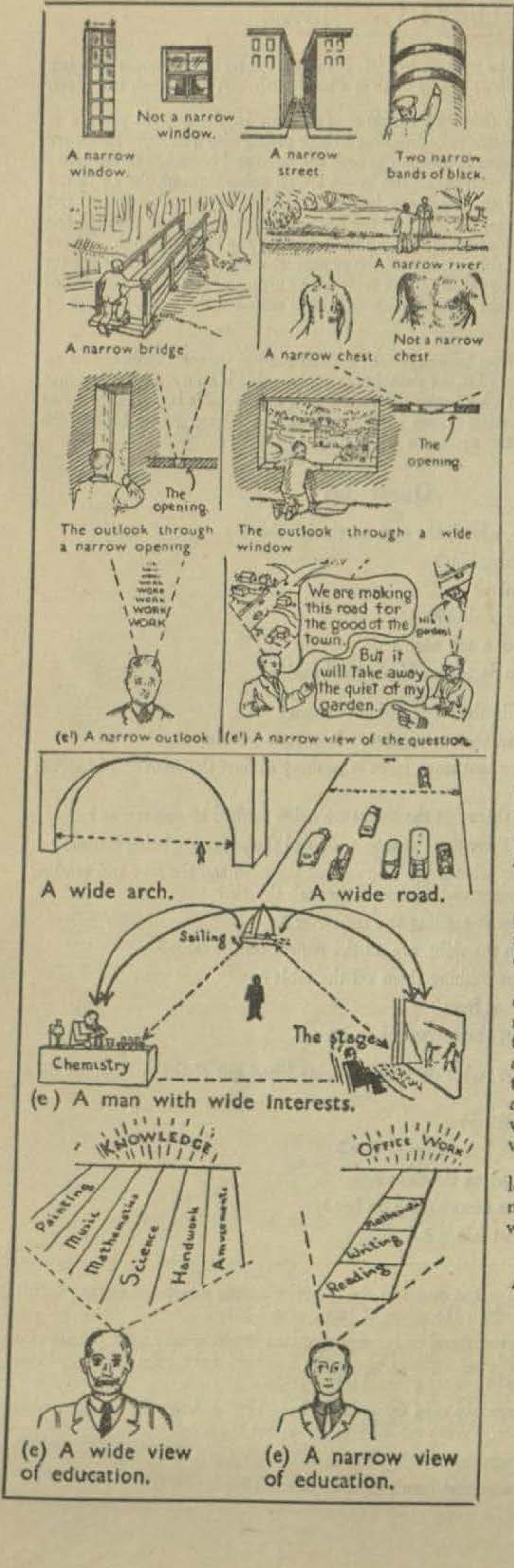
3: But the pleasure of the man and the opposite feeling which the woman seems to have are based on the sense of taste, aren't they ?

4: And so it is not unnatural to get an expansion of the word *taste*. These two persons have different feelings about the fish they have been tasting. How may we put this in a more general way ?

5: And now here are two men who clearly have very different ideas about what is a good picture. What would you say about them ?

6: What sort of pictures has the first man a taste for ?

7: And what is the second man's taste in pictures ?



Unit 95: Narrow and Wide

Narrow

A. Root Sense :—Have a look at the first window frame. You will see that the distance from one side to the other is very short. It is a narrow window. The other window is not narrow. The street is so narrow that two automobiles would be unable to get past one another in it. The two narrow things which the man is pointing to are two narrow bands of black. They may not be very narrow in size, but they are certainly narrow in relation to the wider bands of white.

The man is going onto a narrow bridge. A bridge across a narrow river would not necessarily be narrow itself, but it would have to be short. It is only when the distance across from side to side of something is short that we say that it is narrow, not when the distance from end to end is short. The opposite ends of a bridge are on opposite sides of a river. From the part of his body which is pictured here the boy does not seem very strong. He has a very narrow chest. The other chest is not simply less narrow ; the development of the muscles is much greater. A narrow chest may be responsible for breathing trouble.

Here are pictures of two boys who are looking out of different windows. The first window is narrow and the second is not. The broken lines have been put in to give the angles of the view of the two boys. The angle of view of the first boy is narrow, or sharp ; the angle of view of the other boy is wide. This makes their two outlooks different. The outlook from the narrow angle takes in much less than the outlook from the wide one.

B. Expansion (limited) :—This man has only one thought in his mind—work. He has a narrow outlook. It is an outlook which he sees not with his eyes but with his mind. On the right two men are having an argument. The discussion is about a road which is greatly needed in the town. One man is taking into account the good of the town. The other man sees only what the effect of the road will be on his garden ; he is giving thought only to his private pleasure. In fact he is taking a very narrow view of the question. Take a look back at the narrow street. It is the sort of street which gets very little sunlight in the day-time ; it is a dark street on the same way it is the narrow mind which has the least chance of getting light. In most questions, and it is the narrow person who gets in the way of the development of new ideas and new inventions.

Wide

C. Root Sense :—This arch is very wide ; the distance between the two supporting parts is great. This is because there is a great distance between the two sides of the road, which makes it possible for a great number of automobiles to go on it side by side. In the last picture we saw a street of an opposite sort, and we said that it would not be possible for two automobiles to get past one another on it. That was a narrow street.

D. Expansion (not limited) :—Here is a strange-looking picture. Around the man in the middle are a chemical testing-table, a sailing ship, and a play on a stage. These are representative of the man's interests. They are interests of very different sorts, so that we may say that the man has wide interests.

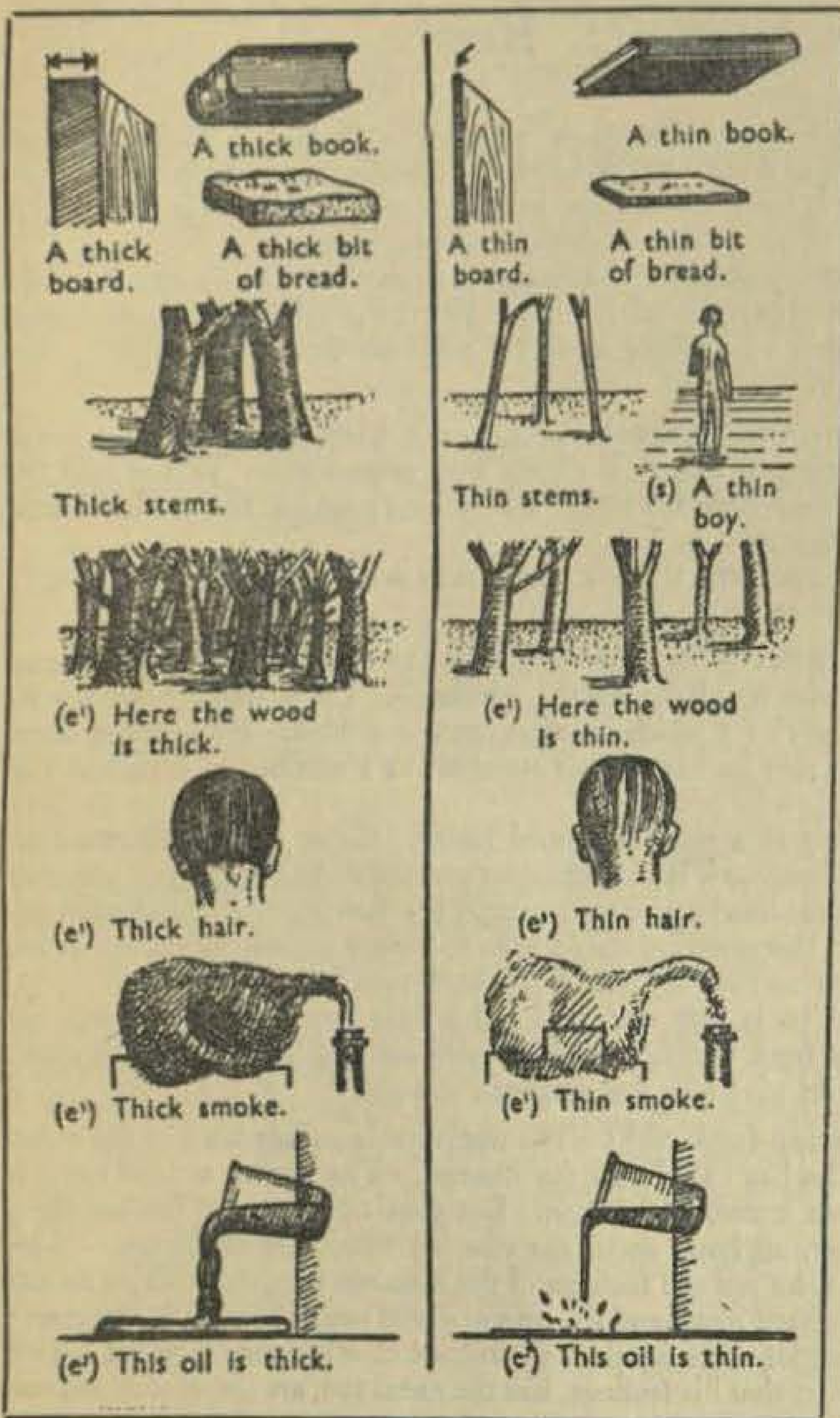
Take a look at the picture of the road again, and then have a look at the foot of the picture, on the left, of what is in the man's mind. In a way the range of the man's mind is like the road ; they are both wide. What is pictured at the foot of the page is the man's view of education. It is a wide view of education. Looking at the road it was possible to see that it was a wide one without measuring the distance from side to side, by the fact that there was room across it for a number of automobiles. In the same way, the man's view of education may be seen to be a wide one because of the number of different things (painting, music and so on) which are covered by it.

At the back there is another arch, an arch of knowledge, to which will come the learner who takes up all these things. For the learner who is guided by the other man's narrow view of education there is no arch of knowledge ; there is only office work.

Questions

A1 : Is there much distance between one side and the other of the first window-frame?
2 : What sort of window is it then?
3 : Is the other window narrow?
4 : Why would two automobiles be unable to get past one another in the street?
5 : What narrow things is the man pointing to at the end of the line?
6 : What are they narrow in relation to?
7 : What sort of bridge is the man going onto?
8 : Is it necessary to have a narrow bridge to get across a narrow river?
9 : What would a bridge across a narrow river have to be?

(*See opposite page.*)



C1: What is the thing pictured under this?
2: What fact about it makes us say that it is wide?
3: Is there a great distance between the two sides of the road?
4: What is the value of this for purposes of transport?

D1: In the other picture we saw a street of the opposite sort. We said it wouldn't be possible for two automobiles to get past one another on it. What sort of street was it?
2: Here is a strange-looking picture. What are sailing, chemistry and the stage to this man?
3: Give thought to these three things for a minute. Are they interests of the same sort?
4: Is the range of the man's interests wide or narrow?
5: What sort of interests do we say they are?
6: Take a look at the picture of the road again and then have a look at the foot of the picture on the left, of what is in the man's mind. In what way is the range of the man's mind like the road?
7: Is it the man's view of something which is pictured here?
8: What sort of a view of education is it?
9: What was one way of judging that the road was wide without measuring the distance from side to side?
10: How do we see that the man's view of education is wide?
11: What is the arch at the end of the road which the learner will come to, on this man's view?
12: What is at the end of the road for the learner if he is guided by the other man's narrow view of education?

Unit 96: Thick and Thin

A. Root Sense:—The board, the book, and the bit of thread have one quality in common; they are all thick. The three things on the right have a quality in common; they are all thin.

B. Special Sense (opposite of fat):—There is much less space between the things in the left group than between those in the right group, because things which are thicker naturally take up more space. In the picture on the right there is a boy looking a little like the tree stems. Like the tree stems he is thin.

C. First Expansion (massed together, widely spaced):—Here are pictures of two different parts of a wood. The part on the right has most space between the trees. For this reason we say that this part of the wood is thin, and for the same reason we say that the other part of the wood, where there is less space between the trees, is thick. This is not to say that the trees in the thick part of the wood are thicker than the trees in the thin part. The reason why there is less space between the trees in the thick part is that there are more of them in the same space, and so they are nearer together.

The hair of the man on the right is in a sense like the trees in the thin part of the wood; the number of hairs is small, and the spaces between them are wide. So this man is said to have thin hair. The hair of the man on the left is like the thick part of the wood, and so he is said to have thick hair.

We say the cloud of smoke on the right is thin, but this is not because we see wider spaces in it than in the cloud of smoke on the left. In fact there is no space at all. There is however a certain quality which the thin part of smoke has in common with the thin wood—it may readily be seen through.

D. Second Expansion (thick (thin) in substance):—The last two pictures are of oil coming out of a glass vessel. The oil on the left is thick; the oil on the right is thin. The thick oil comes out in a thick current, forming a thick mass on the floor. The thin oil comes out in a thin current. It makes only a thin coat of oil on the floor and drops of oil come jumping up as water would.

Questions

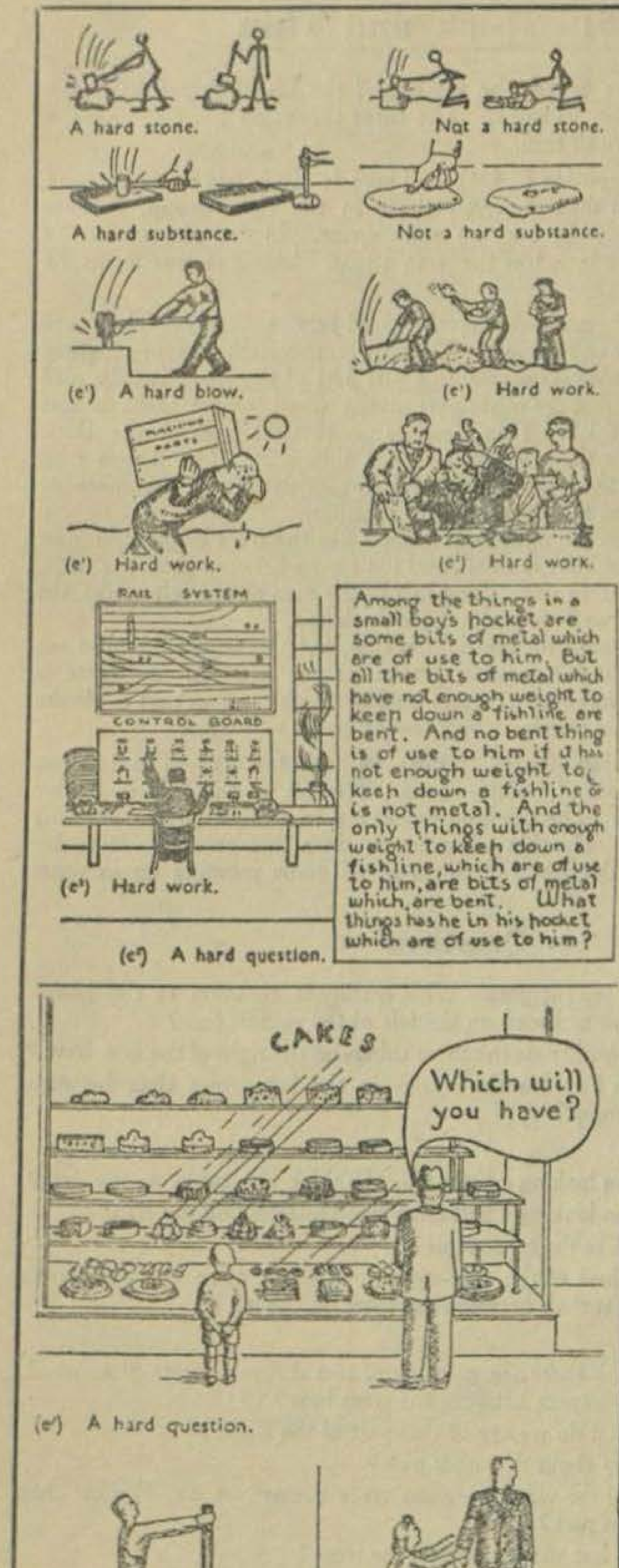
A1: Have a look at the top pictures. What quality is common to the board, the book and the bit of bread on the left of the middle line?
2: And what opposite quality do the three things on the right of the line have?
3: Is there more space between the things in the left group than between those in the right group?
4: Why?

B1: Do you see a person looking a little like the thick tree-stems on the left?
2: Do you see a person looking a little like the tree-stems on the right?
3: In what way is he like the tree-stems?
4: Now have another look at the tree-stems. Is there more space between the trees on the right than between the trees on the left?
5: Why?

C1: In the line under this there are pictures of two different parts of a wood. Which part has most space between the trees in it?
2: For this reason, what do we say of this part of the wood?
3: And what do we say about the other part?
4: In the thick part of the wood, are the trees themselves any thicker than the trees in the thin part?
5: Then why is there less space between the trees?
6: In the picture of the man's head on the right side of the line in what way is the hair like the thin part of the wood?
7: So what sort of hair does this man have?
8: Is the thick hair like the thick part of the wood in the same way?
9: Do we say the cloud of smoke on the right is thin because we see wider spaces in it than in the cloud of smoke on the left?
10: But would you say there was more smoke on the left?
11: There is a quality which the thin cloud of smoke has in common with the thin wood. What is it?

D1: What are the last two pictures of?
2: In what way are the two oils different?
3: How does the thick oil come out?
4: And what about the thin oil?

Unit 97: Hard



A hard stone. Not a hard stone.
A hard substance. Not a hard substance.
(e') A hard blow. (e') Hard work.
(e') Hard work. (e') Hard work.
(e') Hard work.
(e') A hard question.
(e') A hard question.
A hard metal rod. (e') A hard man.

A. Root Sense :—The little match-stick man has given the stone a great blow with the hammer, but it does not seem to have had any effect on the stone. This is because the stone is hard. The stone in the other two pictures is not hard ; when the hammer comes down on it it is broken into small bits.

When the hammer comes down on the flat plate of metal it has no effect on it. This is a sign that the metal is hard. But it is clear that the substance on the right is not hard, because simply by pushing against it with his thumb and fingers the man has made prints in it.

B. First Expansion (using much force) :—To have any effect on a hard substance it would be necessary to give it a blow with great force. This would be a hard blow. Because much force is needed for the work which the roadmen are doing it is said to be hard work.

The work which the man with the box on his back is doing is clearly very hard, because it is making him very warm.

C. Second Expansion (opposite of simple) :—Another man who seems very warm is the man who is talking on the telephone. He is doing hard work, but it is not the sort of work for which physical force is needed. He is doing hard work with his mind, because he has to give attention to a number of things at the same time.

This man is working at a railway control board. Great powers of attention are needed for this work because it is very complex and he has to keep a great number of things in his mind at the same time. On the right is a question. Anyone attempting to give an answer to this question would have to keep a number of points in his mind, and for this reason we may say that it is a hard question.

Another hard question is that with which the little boy is faced. There are such a number of cakes from which to make a selection that he is unable to make up his mind which would give him the greatest pleasure !

D. Third Expansion (unkind) :—The workman is pulling hard at the metal rod. But after a time he has to give up the attempt. The woman on the right is making a request, on her knees, to the man. But clearly her request has no effect on him and after a time, all hope gone, she sees her words are of no use. Why is the rod not bent ? Why are the feelings of the man not touched ? The reason is the same ; the rod is a hard metal and the man is a hard man. Certainly the man's body is not made of harder material than the bodies of other men. What makes us say he is hard is the fact that his feelings, like the metal rod, are not readily moved. He is a hard-hearted man.

Questions

A1 : When the little match-stick man gives the stone a great blow with the hammer does it have any effect on the stone ?

2 : Why ?

3 : Is the stone in the other two pictures hard ?

4 : Why do you say that ?

5 : That's a good reason. Now have a look at the second line. When the hammer comes down on the flat plate of metal, what effect does it have on it ?

6 : What quality of the metal is this a sign of ?

7 : Why is it clear that the substance on the right is not hard ?

B1 : To have any effect on a hard substance, would you have to give it a blow with much or with little force ?

2 : What sort of blow is this ?

3 : Is much force needed for the work which the roadmen are doing ?

4 : What sort of work is it ?

5 : Is the man with the box on his back doing hard work ?

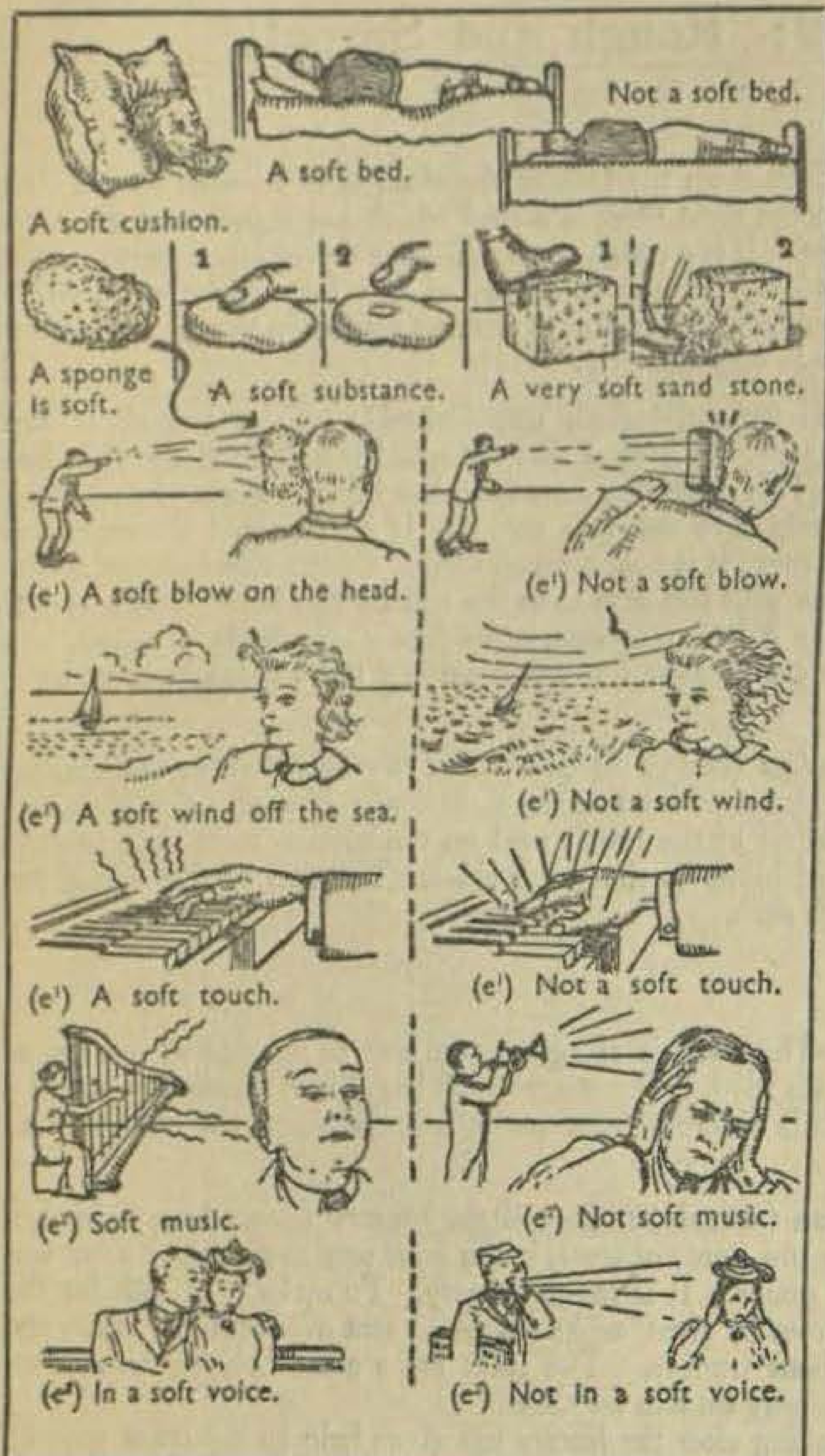
6 : What effect is this having on him ?

C1 : Does the man who is talking on the telephone seem warm ?

2 : Why is he warm ?

3 : But is he using physical force to give something a blow or get something transported ?

(See opposite page.)



Questions on 'Hard'

4 : What sort of hard work is he doing?

5 : Are great powers of attention needed for the work which the man at the railway control board is doing?

6 : Is it necessary for him to keep a great number of things in his mind?

7 : And would a person attempting to give an answer to the question at the end of the page have to keep a number of points in his mind?

8 : That being so, what sort of a question is it?

9 : Take a look at the top of the second picture. What makes the question a hard one for the little boy?

D1 : Now take a look at the last four pictures. The workman gives a pull at the metal rod. Does it have any effect on it?

2 : Are the requests which the woman on her knees is making to the man having any effect on him?

3 : Why is it that the rod is not bent or the feelings of the man touched?

4 : Is the man hard because his body is made of harder material than the bodies of other men?

5 : What is it about him which makes us say he is hard?

6 : What sort of heart has he?

Unit 98: Soft

A. Root Sense :—The woman's head goes deeply into the cushion. This is a sign that the cushion is soft. That the first bed is soft may be seen from the fact that the weight of the man's body makes a hollow in it. The second bed is not soft, because the weight of the man's body does not make a hollow in it.

After the man has put his finger in the substance there is a hollow in it. From this it may be seen that it is a soft substance. But when the weight of the man's body comes down on the sandstone it does not make a hollow in it; the sandstone gives way under his weight, and parts of it are broken up into small bits.

B. First Expansion (with little force) :—A sponge is made of a very soft substance. Even if it is sent through the air with very great force it will give only a soft blow. On the other hand, a brick which is sent at a man's head will give him a very hard blow, and it will probably have the effect of making his head go over on one side.

This girl is by the edge of the sea. There is some wind, but we may be certain that it is only a soft wind. Why? Because only one small bit of her hair has been forced out of place by it. The hair of the girl on the right is something like a waving flag. The wind is so strong that it is sending it over to one side. This wind is not a soft wind.

A man is playing a piano. In the picture on the left he is giving the instrument a soft touch. A soft touch makes much less sound than the violent sort of touch which is pictured on the right.

C. Second Expansion (not loud) :—Here are two pictures of different instruments being played. One instrument is playing soft music which would be pleasing to any hearer. The instrument on the right is producing a noise which is clearly having a violent reaction on the man who has his hands over his ears.

The girl's lover is talking into her ear in a soft voice; he has no desire for others to have knowledge of what he is saying. But the boy who is crying out the news is attempting to get the attention of as great a number of persons as possible. There is no need for him to keep his voice soft; in fact it would be foolish of him to do so.

Questions

A1 : The woman's head goes deeply into the cushion. What is that a sign of?

2 : What sort of bed is the first one?

3 : Is the second bed soft?

4 : What makes you able to say that one bed is soft and the other hard?

5 : On the line under this, does the man's finger make a hollow in the substance when he puts his finger down on it?

6 : What sort of substance is it?

7 : When the weight of the man's boot comes down on the sandstone does it make a hollow in it?

8 : What is the effect?

9 : Why does it do this?

B1 : Is a sponge hard or soft?

2 : What is the man sending through the air at the other man's head in the left-hand picture?

3 : What sort of blow does it give the man's head?

4 : In the second picture a brick is sent at the man's head. Does that give him a soft blow?

5 : What effect does it have on the man's head?

6 : In the picture under this, what is sending the girl's hair over to one side like a waving flag?

7 : Is it a soft wind?

8 : Why, in the picture on the left, is only one small bit of her hair forced out of place by the wind?

9 : In which of the two pictures of a man playing a piano is a soft touch pictured?

10 : Does this make more or less sound than the more violent touch?

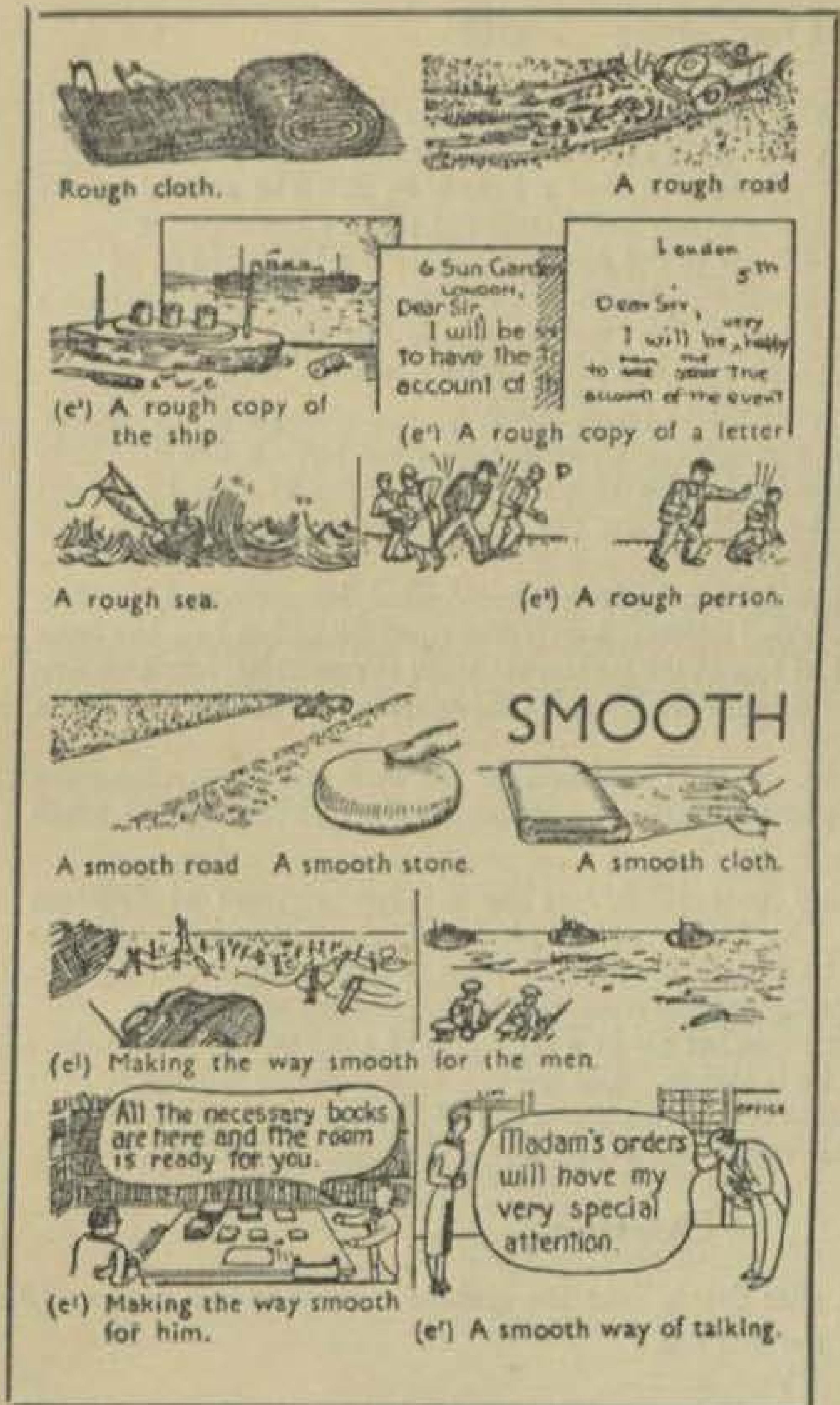
C1 : In the two pictures of different instruments being played, is one instrument producing more noise than the other?

2 : The loud music is having a violent reaction on the hearer. What sort of music does not produce a violent reaction?

3 : In what sort of voice is the girl's lover talking into her ear?

4 : When a person is talking in a very soft voice, what effect does that have on the hearing of it?

5 : Is the boy crying out the news in a soft voice?



Unit 99: Rough and Smooth

Rough

A. Root Sense :—Even from the look of the cloth it is possible to see that it is rough in quality. On the right there is a road which has stones and grass on it and which is not at all flat. It is a rough road. Anyone driving in an automobile on such a road would quickly become conscious of this fact. The automobile would have an up-and-down motion, sometimes sending you up in the air and sometimes letting you come down very violently.

B. First Expansion (non-detailed, unpolished) :—Take a look at the copy of the ship in the picture. It is clear that the wood from which the ship has been made is very rough. This makes the copy seem less like the ship. In addition to this the details of the ship have not been copied. It is clear that the copy has not been made with much care ; it is only a rough copy. Of the two letters the one on the right has been done with less care than the one on the left. It is a rough copy of it. We do not say it is rough because the face of the letter is rough, but because some of the words have lines through them and the writing has not been done with care.

C. Second Expansion (rough in behaviour) :—Great waves are making the sea rough. The rough sea is sending the little boat rolling about. This may put you in mind of the effect of the rough road on the motion of the automobile. The waves are giving hard blows to the ship's sides. The man who is giving the boy a hard blow is a rough man.

Smooth

D. Root Sense :—This road is of an opposite sort to the one at the top of the picture. It is a smooth road. The stone which has almost a polished face is a smooth stone. The cloth is different from the cloth at the top of the picture ; this is smooth cloth.

E. First Expansion (simple) :—Part of the country we see here is broken up by bits of strong wire and stems of trees, in the same way as the rough road was broken up by grass and stones. It is rough country. To make it smooth for the men who have to get across it, great tanks are being sent over it first. Now the men will get across without trouble. The tanks are a great help to the men on foot ; they are making the way smooth for them.

The man who is looking after the library has given help to the other man by getting together all the necessary books and making the room ready for his work. He has made the way smooth for him.

F. Second Expansion (polished) :—The man is talking to the woman in a smooth way. He is making it simple for her to get what she has a desire for. Even if his words did not come to one's ears it would be quite clear, from his behaviour, that he was making the way smooth for her.

Questions

A1 : Judging from the look of the cloth, what quality of it would one become conscious of if one put one's fingers over it ?

2 : Here is a road which has stones and grass on it and is not at all flat. What sort of road is it ?

3 : How would one be conscious of this if one was in the automobile ?

B1 : Take a look at the copy of the ship in the picture. What fact is clear about the wood from which the ship has been made ?

2 : Does this make the copy seem more or less like the ship ?

3 : In what other way is it a poor copy ?

4 : What sort of copy is it ?

5 : Does it seem as if it has been done with much care ?

6 : Which of the two letters seems as if it has been done with least care ?

7 : What is this in relation to the other letter ?

C1 : When there are great waves on the sea, what sort of sea do we say that it is ?

2 : What effect are the waves of the rough sea having on the little boat ?

3 : Does this put you in mind of the effect of another rough thing of which we have been talking ?

4 : Are the blows of the waves against the ship's sides hard or soft ?

5 : In the last picture, which is the rough person ?

D1 : This road is of an opposite sort to the one at the top of the picture. What sort of road is it ?

2 : What sort of stone is this which has almost a polished face ?

3 : Is the cloth different from the cloth at the top ?

E1 : In the first picture on the second line, is part of the country broken up by bits of stick, wire, and stems of trees in the same way as the rough road was broken up by grass and stones ?

2 : What makes it smooth by putting the sticks and so on flat on the earth ?

3 : What are they making it smooth for ?

4 : Are the tanks a great help to the men on foot ?

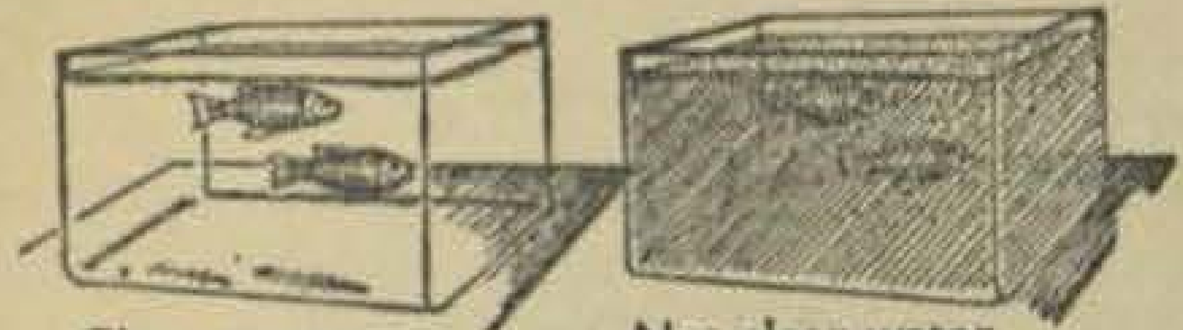
5 : What are they doing which is giving so much help to the men ?

6 : What has the man looking after the library done to give help to the other man ?

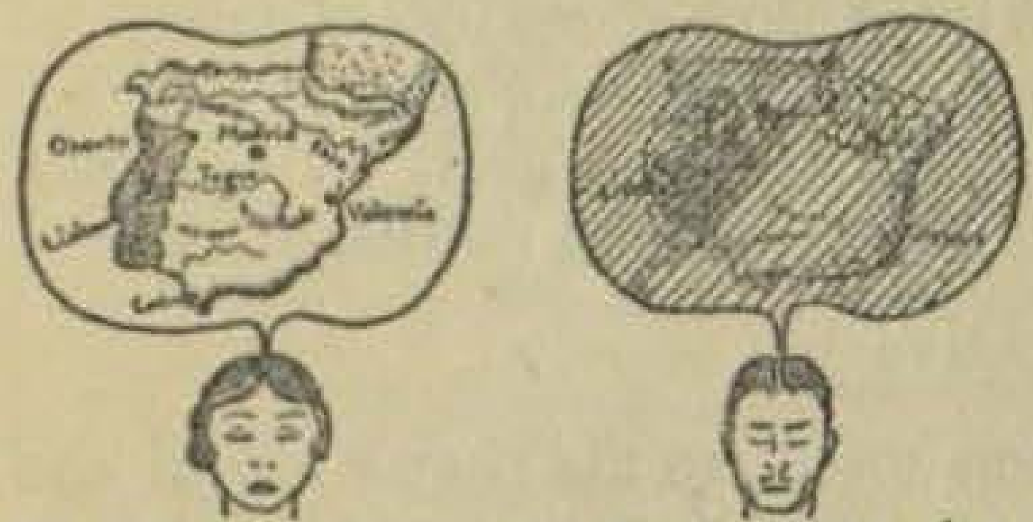
7 : What do we say he has done for the man ?

F1 : In the last picture, in what sort of way is the man talking ?

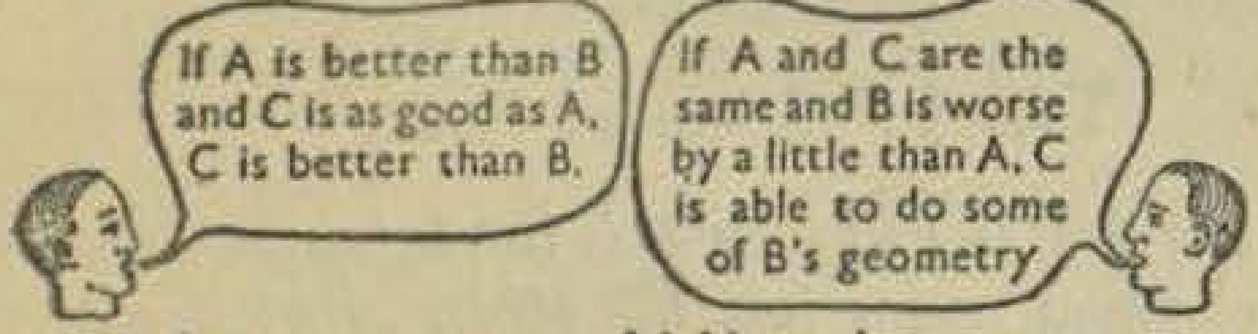
Unit 100: Clear



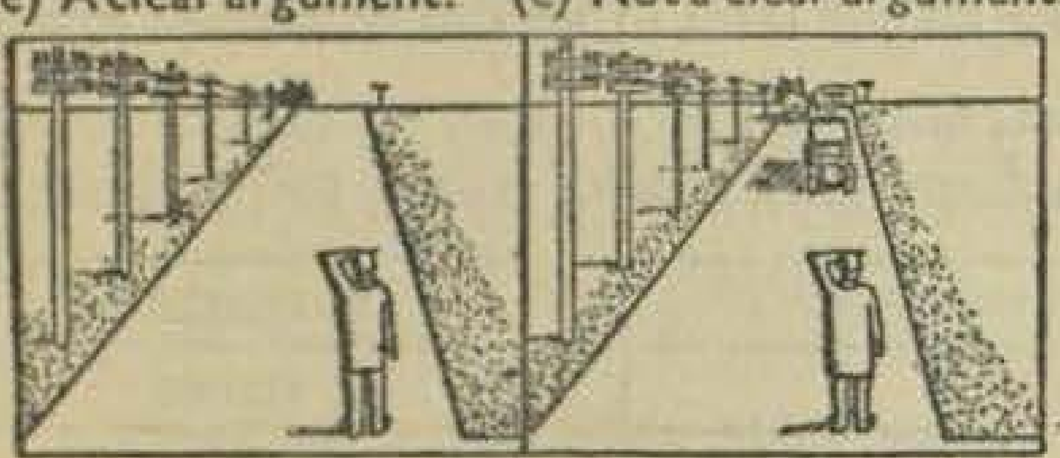
Clear water. Not clear water.



(e) She has a clear idea of the map. (e) He has not a clear idea of the map.



(e) A clear argument. (e) Not a clear argument.



(e') The road is clear. (e') The road is not clear.

A. Root Sense:—These two pictures are of the same glass vessel. In it there are two fishes. They are swimming in water. In the first picture we are able to see the fishes more readily. This is because the water is clear. The glass is a solid substance but it does not keep us from seeing the fishes because, like water, it is a clear substance. The water in the second picture, however, is not clear. The reason for this is that it is probably dirty.

B. First Expansion (clear to the mind):—The two maps are pictures in the minds of the woman and the man. The details on the map pictured by the woman are very readily seen; those on the map pictured by the man are not so readily seen. The woman has a clear idea of the map; the man's picture of the map is clouded and less complete in its detail. There may be a number of reasons for this; possibly he has a bad memory, or possibly his knowledge of the details of the map was never complete. But whatever the reason we may be certain that he has not a clear idea of the map.

These two men are putting forward two different arguments. The steps in the first argument may be seen very quickly and without much trouble; it is a clear argument. But we are not able to take in the reasoning of the second man's argument because it is not a clear argument. A man who puts forward an argument of this sort has not a clear mind.

C. Second Expansion (free):—In the first picture of the road there is nothing on it to keep the man from seeing from one end of it to the other at the first look. Another way of saying this is that it is a clear road. In the other picture an automobile and some carts have come into view. These keep the man from seeing part of the road. Because the man's view of the road is not clear we may say that the road itself is not clear.

A1: The two top pictures are of the same glass vessel. What are the two things in it?

2: What are they swimming in?

3: In one picture, are you able to see the fishes at a first look more readily than in the other?

4: Is this because of something to do with the fishes or because of something to do with the water?

5: What is it about the water which makes you able to see the fishes so well?

6: But glass is a solid substance. Doesn't it keep you from seeing the fishes?

7: In what way is the water in the second picture different from the water in the first picture?

8: Have you any idea why it may not be clear?

B1: The two maps are pictures in the minds of the woman and the man. Are the details of one map seen more readily than the details of the other?

2: Is this because of the map of which her mind has a picture, or is it because of a quality of her picture of it?

3: What sort of idea of the map does she have?

4: The man's picture of the map is clouded and less complete in its details. What may be the cause of this?

5: For some such reason what is wrong with his idea?

6: The pictures we come to now are of two men putting forward two different arguments. Are you able to see the steps in the first argument very quickly and without much trouble?

7: Then what sort of argument is it?

8: Why are you not able to take in the reasoning of the second man's argument?

9: What fact is pointed to about the mind of the man who put forward this argument?

C1: In the first picture of the road, is there anything on it which keeps the man from seeing from one end of it to the other at a first look?

2: What is another way of saying this?

3: In the other picture, what has come into view?

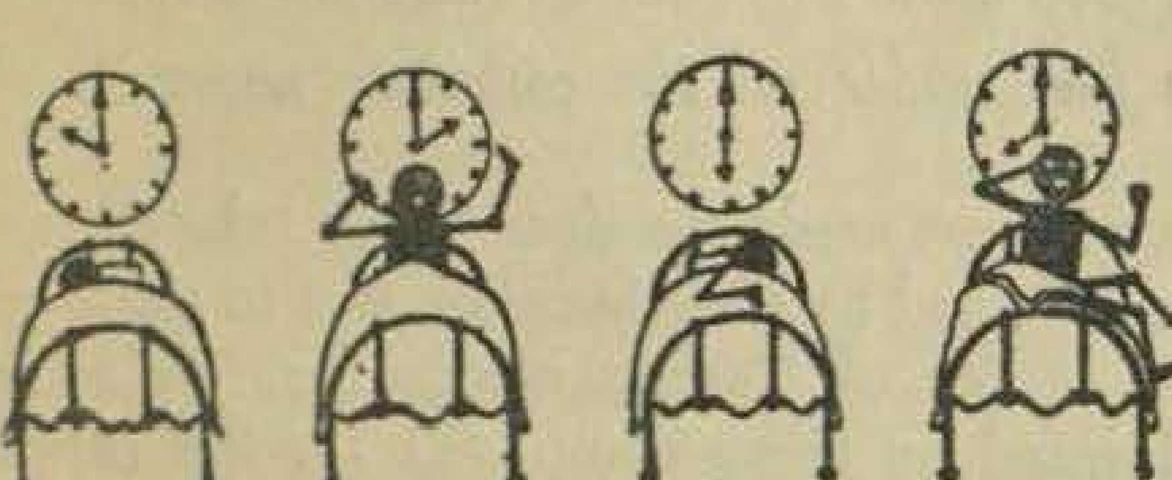
4: What effect have they on the man's view of the road?

5: What do we say of the road now?

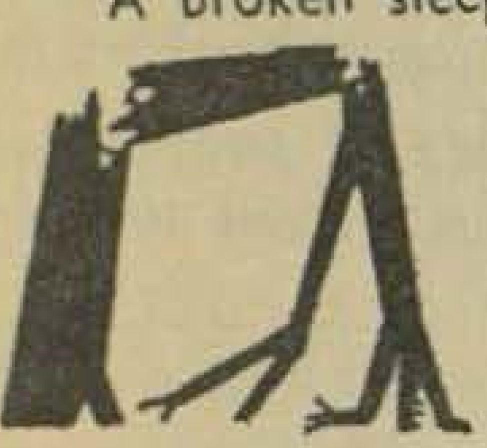
Writing: Make up notes of the same sort for 'broken.'



A broken plate.



A broken sleep.



A broken tree.



(e.) A broken man.
All his money is gone.

PART 4

GRAMMAR (1): NAMES AND FORMS

1. What Is Grammar?

In learning a language it is necessary to get a knowledge of two things, words and grammar. Words are the separate units of sense which we put together in different ways to give an account of our ideas. They are the material of language. Grammar is the body of rules by which we do this. It is the organization, or structure, which is given to words. Grammar gives words different sorts of work to do; it says what changes of form they have to undergo, and when; and it says where they have to be placed when they are joined with other words to make a statement.

It is quite possible, by copying others, to make use of language without having a knowledge of the rules of grammar. That is what babies do when they say things for the first time. And it is possible, again, to have a knowledge of the rules, in the sense of being able to put words together in the right way, without having a clear picture of the structure of the language one is talking and without having come across the special names which have been given to the different sorts of words, forms, and relations by experts in grammar. You yourself are now at this stage. This part of the book gives you an ordered account of the rules of grammar and some of the special names which are most common. Most of the facts in these pages will probably not be new to you, but you will be learning new names for them and getting a more complete picture of the language you are learning.

2. The Parts of Speech

Words do not all do the same sort of work. In fact, we make statements by putting together words whose behaviour is different. The grouping of words is a part of grammar, and the structure of English, as of most other languages, is dependent on the chief divisions which grammar makes. These divisions are named the **Parts of Speech.**

There are eight Parts of Speech: nouns, adjectives, verbs, prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions, pronouns, interjections. Let us have a look at these different groups in turn.

3. Nouns

3a. Sorts of Noun

3a1: What is a Noun?

A **noun** is a word which is the name of some person (*John, man, teacher*) or thing (*book, mountain, band*), or which, for purposes of grammar, is used as if it was such a name (*meeting, event, danger, summer*).

3a2: Proper and Common

A noun which is the name of one special person, country, place, building, river, mountain, and so on, is a **proper noun** and its first letter is a great (or **capital**) letter. All other nouns are **common nouns.**

3a3: Collective

Some common nouns are the names not of one thing but of a group of things. Examples are: *group, committee, army.* These are **collective nouns.**

Test 1: Sorts of Noun

A. Put the proper nouns in this list into one division, and the common nouns into the other. Put a capital letter for those which seem to you to be proper nouns:

delhi, street, england, boy, train, ganges, box, organization, mohammed, drain, store, town, himalayas.

Proper	Common
Delhi	street

B. Put a line under all the common nouns in this statement:

After a little time the sails were quickly unrolled, and the great ship went on its journey; but the waves became higher, great clouds made the sky darker, and sudden bright lights were to be seen in the distance. Bad weather was coming on; the sails were again rolled up, and the great ship went more and more quickly over the troubled sea. The waves became as high as mountains, as if they would have come over the highest point of the ship; but the ship went between them like a bird, and then came up again on their white tops.

C. Put a line under all the collective nouns in this statement:

The Government made the decision to take all taxes off the goods needed by poor families, but to put a new tax on the profits of trading companies. A society has been formed by these companies for the support of their rights. Last night a representative of the society put its views before a meeting of business men.

D. Make these statements complete by putting nouns in the spaces, and say what sort of noun you are using:

1. We get our bodies clean with.................... and....................
2. Air comes in through the open....................
3. The secretary of the.................... kept a .... of what took place at the....................
4. An island is.................... with.................... on every ....
5. We do writing with a.................... or a....................

3b. Nouns—Singular and Plural

3b1: Addition of 's'

The form of a noun used for talking of two or more persons or things is generally different from that used for talking of one person or thing. The form used for talking of one person or thing (nut, house, etc.) is the singular form. That used for talking of more than one person or thing is the plural form. It is commonly formed by the addition of *s* to the singular; for example, nut, nuts; house, houses.

3b2: '-es', '-ies', '-ves'

There are certain rules for forming plurals in other ways than by the simple addition of *s*.

1. Words ending in *ss, ch, sh, x, or o* after a **consonant**[1] make their plural form by the addition of *-es*.

glass	glasses
match	matches
brush	brushes
tax	taxes
potato	potatoes

2. The plural form of words ending in *y* after a consonant is made by changing the *y* into *i* and putting on *es*.

country	countries
but take note:	
boy	boys
play	plays

3. The plural form of words ending in *f* or *fe* is frequently made by changing the *f* or *fe* into *ves*.

knife	knives
leaf	leaves

3b3: Other Ways

There are some words whose plurals are formed in ways not covered by these rules. A plural form may be made by changing a vowel (m*a*n, m*e*n; t*oo*th, t*ee*th), or, with a small number of words, by making some more complex change (child, child*ren*). In other words the singular and plural forms are the same (sheep).

3b4: Sorts of . . .

The plural form of nouns naming things which are not able to be numbered (names of materials) gives the sense "sorts of." Woods = sorts of wood. Sugars = sorts of sugar, and so on.

Test 2: Plural Forms

Give the plural forms of these nouns:

fly, potato, foot, army, boy, push, glass, match, shoe, woman, copy, dance, society, touch, view, way, fish, industry, stomach, mouth, church, key, body, tray.

[1] The five letters *a, e, i, o, u,* are **vowels**; the other 21 letters are **consonants.**

Singular	Plural
box	boxes

3c. Nouns—Possessive Form

3c1: Addition of 's

The **possessive** form of a noun is used as a sign that the person or thing named by it is the owner of another person or thing, or has another person or thing as a part of it, or is in some near relation to another person or thing. This possessive form is made by the addition of 's to the simple form of the noun: the teacher's book, the girl's opinion, the ship's sails.

3c2: Addition of ' Only

The possessive form of a plural noun ending in *s* or *es* is made by putting ' after it (cooks', armies'). The possessive of other plural nouns is made by the addition of 's (men's, sheep's).

3c3: Use of 'of'

A longer way of making clear this possessive relation is by the use of *of*.

the girl's dress	= the dress of the girl
the flower's colour	= the colour of the flower.

3c4: 's or 'of'?

The possessive form made by the addition of 's is used more frequently with names of persons and animals than with names of things. For example, we do not say:

the *room's* windows
the *field's* produce
the *pot's* cover

Words for time, space and weight are however sometimes used in this way. For example,

a *day's* journey
a *month's* leave

Test 3: Possessive Form

Put the possessive form in place of 'of' *in these statements:*

1. There was a cut on the face of the man.
2. The work of the experts was done.
3. The leaves of the tree were thin and brown.
4. There were gold rings in the ears of the women.
5. The pages of the book are marked.
6. He took the money of his sons.
7. The trade of this country with other countries will be increased.
8. Now I am at the end of my journey.

Make a frame like this in your copy book and in it put more examples of the singular and plural possessive form which you come across in your reading:

Singular	Plural
a sepoy's work	my friends' respect

4. Adjectives

4a. Sorts of Adjective

4a1 : What is an Adjective ?

An **adjective** is a word saying something about that which is named by a noun. It has the effect of limiting what is pointed to by the noun, or, when used in connection with a proper noun, of making it clearer. It is said to **qualify** the noun. Very wide groups of things are covered by words such as *book, person, metal.* But generally, when talking, we have in mind some special sort of book, person, or metal. So we say *green book, wise person, hard metal,* and so on. Words such as *green, wise,* and *hard* are adjectives.

4a2 : What Does an Adjective Do ?

Adjectives say something about the quality, the amount, or the position of the thing which is being talked of. They are placed before the noun they qualify or after some form of *be* or a word of the same sort (*the weather is good, the cloth becomes wet*).

4a3 : Quality, Amount, Position

There are four chief sorts of adjective :

1. Adjectives of quality :—
   good, black, beautiful, sad, round, etc.
2. Adjectives of number or amount :—
   (a) *one, two,* etc.
   (b) *all, every, any, no, some,* etc.
3. Adjectives of position :—
   (a) Space : *near, far, high,* and so on.
   (b) Time : *present, past, future.*

   Some adjectives in this group may be used equally of space or time, *e.g., first, second, last.*

   Some of these adjectives may be used as a sign of positions which are not in space or time. For example, we say, *first place in a competition, a high position in the Government.* Such uses are based on the idea of the degrees of a scale.
4. Pointing adjectives :—
   such, this and *that.*

Test 4: Sorts of Adjective

A. Put a line under the adjectives in these statements and say which sort of adjective they are :

1. Some houses have flat roofs.
2. The man has a black hat.
3. The young women have brown eyes.
4. Linen cloth makes good shirts.
5. The tall houses by the river are old.
6. Poor persons get cheap things.
7. Three men went into the new store.
8. Any quick cat will readily do such a trick.
9. Not all books are bad.
10. The present danger is a serious one.

B. Make a list (A) of the adjectives in this and another list (B) of the nouns they qualify :

I had on a wide band made of skin, which I kept together with two leather cords in place of a metal pin. I had two wood-cutting instruments hanging from this with cords, like military blades—one on one side and one on the other. I had another band, narrow but fixed in the same way, hanging over my arm. At the end of it, under my left arm, there were two small bags, made of goat's skin, in one of which I kept my powder, and in the other, my lead. I had a short coat of goat's skin, which did not quite come down to my knees ; and short loose trousers made of the same material. The trousers were made of the skin of an old he-goat, whose hair was so long that it came down to the middle of my legs. I had no stockings or shoes but had made rough bags for my feet which might possibly be named boots.

4b. Adjectives—Degrees of Comparison

The only change of form which adjectives undergo is in connection with statements of comparison. These forms are the *degrees of comparison.*

4b1 : Positive

The root form of an adjective, used when a comparison is not being made, is the **positive** form.

4b2 : Comparative

The form used in making clear that one person or thing has the quality named in a greater degree than another is the **comparative** form. It is made by the addition of *-er.*

This boy is *older* than his sister.
This mountain is *higher* than that one.
The cat is *smaller* than the dog.

4b3 : Superlative

The form used in making clear that one person or thing has the quality named in a greater degree than two or more others is the **superlative** form. It is made by the addition of *-est.*

This boy is the *oldest* of the three.
This mountain is the *highest* in the country.
She has a ring on her *smallest* finger.

4b4 : 'i' for 'y', doubling

In adjectives ending with *-y,* the *-y* is changed to *i* before the addition of *-er, -est.* With some adjectives, having one consonant at the end, a second consonant is put on before the addition of the ending.

Examples :

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
happy	happier	happiest
fat	fatter	fattest

4b5 : 'More' and 'most'

With adjectives which are long words, the comparatives and superlatives are not formed by the addition of an ending, but *more* and *most* are used before the positive form. Comparatives and superlatives may be made in this way with any adjective other than those whose forms are not regular. E.g., for *beautiful* and *interesting*.

Comparative	Superlative
more beautiful	most beautiful
more interesting	most interesting

4b6 : Not Regular

The adjectives whose comparative and superlative forms are not regular are :

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
good	better	best
bad	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least

Test 5 : Adjective (Degree)

A. *Put down the comparative and superlative forms of these adjectives* :

young, healthy, little, simple, tired, great, deep, surprising, wet, representative, strong, serious.

B. *Put down eight statements using the comparative and superlative forms of* :

good, bad, much, little.

4c. Adjectives—Definite and Indefinite

4c1 : 'A' and 'The'

There are two words which are grouped with adjectives, but whose behaviour is not quite that of true adjectives. They are :

A (n)—the **indefinite article.**
The—the **definite article.**

4c2 : No Comparison

These words, like adjectives, are used for qualifying nouns and are placed before them. On the other hand, they have no degrees of comparison, and there is another very special point to be noted about them. One or other of these articles generally has to be used before the singular form of any noun which is the name of some thing of a sort which may be numbered. It is only when certain other adjectives are used, such as *any, some, every,* that an article is not needed.

4c3 : Short for 'One' and 'This'

The articles may be looked on as pointing adjectives. *A* (*n*) came into being as a short form of *one*, and *the* as a short form of *this, that, these, those*. The development of such forms is very natural in quick talk.

4c4 : 'A' = no special one, any

A (*an* before a word starting with a vowel or an unsounded 'h') is a sign that the thing named by the noun is :

1. Some one, not special or noted before :
   I saw *a* man in the street.
2. Any one, whoever or whichever is taken :
   A porter has to be strong.
   He has never been in *a* boat.

4c5 : 'A' = 'a sort of'

When used before a noun which is the name of something which is not able to be numbered (*a butter, a liquid, an acid,* and so on) it has the sense, "a sort of."

4c6 : 'The' = a special one

The is a sign that the thing named by the noun is :

1. Some special one or ones, different from others :
   The flowers in my hand were dead.
2. Some special one which has been talked of before, or which the hearer will have in mind for some other reason :
   I came to a house. No one was in *the* house.
3. Something of which there is only one :
   The earth goes round in space.

4c7 : 'The' = 'All'

In addition, *the* is sometimes used* to give the sense "all, every one of a sort."

The sheep is a mountain animal.

Test 6 : The Articles

Put the right article into these statements :

1. ....sky was full of birds.
2. Most of..................men were working.
3. ....Himalayas are very high.
4. This is..................only flower we were talking about.
5. She takes..................interest in painting.
6. ....dog is man's oldest friend.
7. I went to all..................theatres in London.
8. We have..................friend in Delhi.
9. There was..................cow in the field.
10. He has never seen..................airplane.
11. Football is..................game.
12. ....cup on the table is broken.
13. I got a comb from the canteen..................comb was made of bone.
14. ....sun will come up at six.
15. ....tiger is a violent animal.
16. The man was..................farmer.
17. A spade is..................instrument.
18. ....man in the middle is a judge.

* 'The' is not used in this way in Basic English.

5. Verbs

5a. Simple and Complex

5a1 : What is a Verb ?

A verb is a word of the sort which makes a statement of the taking place of an event ; but it has a wider use than this. It is the word with which something is said about a person or thing in a statement whose structure is complete. Verbs are marked by special changes of form.

5a2 : Simple Operations

The most straightforward verbs are those, such as *put, take, give, get, have* (in the sense of gripping or keeping with some part of the body), which are the names of simple physical operations.

5a3 : Complex Operations

A great number of the words used as verbs are, however, of a more complex sort. They undergo the same changes of form and take the same part in statements as the simple verbs, or 'operators' as they are sometimes named, but they are shorthand words doing the work of more than one part of speech. In a statement using a simple verb like *give*, other words are needed for naming what does the act, what is acted on, the direction of the act, and the way in which, or the time when, it is done (*I give a book to the boy now*). A complex verb makes some word or words in such a statement unnecessary by doing their work in addition to the special work for which a verb is needed. A very frequent complex is that formed of name of operation + preposition, or direction-word (see p. 21).

Examples are :

reach = get to (a place)
leave = go from (a place)
climb = go up
descend = go down
enter = go into
lift = take up

But it is not only direction-words which may go inside the verb in this way. Here are some other sorts of complex verb.

dash = go quickly
feed = give food to
pot = put in a pot
remove = take away

In all these examples, the act named is simple, though the verb is more than the name of the act. Some verbs are the names of much more complex acts. When we *say* something, we make sounds of a special sort by moving the tongue, lips, throat, and other parts in a number of different ways ; when we *draw*, we make delicate motions with the muscles of the hand and arm for the purpose of producing a picture or design with a pencil, pen, or bit of chalk, and so on.

5a4 : Not Physical Acts

There is another important group of verbs in which what is named is not a physical act, though judged in some way to be like one, for example :

taper = get thinner at one end
cost = have as its price
understand = take in the sense of
ignore = give no attention to

5b. Verbs—Transitive and Intransitive

5b1 : Transitive—Object

Verbs whose sense is not complete without the name of the person or thing acted on being given are **transitive** verbs. Verbs whose sense is complete without the addition of such a noun are **intransitive.** The name of the person or thing acted on is the **object.**

5b2 : Transitive and Intransitive

A great number of verbs may be transitive or intransitive.

Examples :

Transitive	Intransitive
The match *burns* my finger	The fire *burns* well.
He *turns* the wheel.	The wheel *turns*.

5b3 : Be—Existence, Statement

'Be' is a verb about which a special note is necessary. Sometimes it is used to make the statement of a thing's existence (*these things are, I am*), existence being a sort of process or operation. But when *be* is used with some noun or adjective after it, it is simply the sign that a statement is being made about something, that a fact is being put forward.

Rats *are* animals.
This statement *is* true.

5b4 : Copulas are Intransitive

When so used, *be* is not looked on as the name of an act, though its behaviour, from the point of view of grammar, is that of a verb. It is named a **copula,** or joining word, because it does the work of joining what is talked about to what is said about it. Other copulas are *seem* and *become*. A copula is an intransitive verb.

Test 7 : Verb and Object

Put a line under the verb in every statement and say if it is transitive or intransitive. If it is transitive, give the object :

1. The cat walks. 2. The garden is beautiful. 3. The table has a broken leg. 4. That woman is my mother. 5. The girl made a coat. 6. I sent the letter. 7. She touched the baby. 8. The train went quickly. 9. Get me an apple. 10. I smashed the cup.

5c. Verb and Sentence

5c1 : Subject and Predicate

A **sentence** is a group of words which makes sense by putting forward a complete idea. Normally, a sentence has a verb in it and may be looked on as having two parts :

1. The word or words naming that which we are talking about. This part is the **subject.**
2. The word or words saying something about the subject. This part is the **predicate** and has in it the verb.

Examples :

Subject	Predicate
I	see.
The noise	was very loud.
Cows	have horns.
Hard work	makes him tired.

5c2 : Complement

An adjective joined to the subject of a sentence by a copula is named a **predicative adjective ;** a noun or pronoun so joined is a **predicative noun** or **pronoun.** Such words make the copula complete, as an object makes a transitive verb complete. We say they are its **complement.**

5c3 : Complete in Form, not in Sense

Sometimes the full sense of a sentence is not clear to a reader or hearer till he has seen, or someone has said, another sentence. If we say,

John was reading. He had the book on his knee. It was *Gulliver's Travels.*

the hearer will not have a complete knowledge of what the second sentence is about till after hearing the first and third, because he will have no knowledge of who the "he" of the second sentence is or of what book was on his knee. But all these statements are sentences because their form is that which, in grammar, is used as the sign of a complete idea.

5c4 : Complete in Sense, not in Form

It is possible, on the other hand, to put a complete idea into words without using the complete sentence form. If, in certain conditions, a person says, "Quite!" or "Look! A ship!" or "Please!" or "Certainly not!" he is using sentences because his words make sense to the hearer ; but they are not sentences formed of a subject and a predicate, and some of them do not even have a verb.

5c5 : Form and Sense

It is clear then that, though frequently a sentence is complete in form and idea together, a group of words which is complete only in form or only in the sense which it gives to the hearer or reader is still a sentence.

Test 8 : Subject and Predicate

Put the subject of these sentences under the heading 'subject' and the predicate under the heading 'predicate'. Put a line under the part of the predicate which is the verb.

1. The woman said something foolish.
2. The broken branch is on the grass.
3. I have seen someone in the store.
4. The cook will put the food and drink on the table.
5. The time went quickly.
6. The men and women took no money.
7. This word seems wrong.
8. She is giving her apples to a friend.
9. The house in the wood has a red roof.
10. He generally puts two stamps on his letters.
11. Martin put down his gun.
12. The old man kept his eyes shut.
13. The boy in the boat gave a loud cry.
14. She is putting on her glasses.
15. All the boys were hard at work.
16. Two men took the prisoner away.
17. We are going to Bombay.
18. No-one saw him.
19. The swimmers got across the river.
20. They did everything possible.

Subject	Predicate
1. The woman	said something foolish

5d. Verbs—Active and Passive Voice

5d1 : Active

A verb is **active** when the subject is the doer of the operation named by the verb.

He *took* the cakes.
The man *made* a wheel.

5d2 : Passive

A verb is **passive** when the subject is the person or thing which undergoes the operation named by the verb.

The cakes *were taken* by him.
The wheel *was made* by the man.

The active and passive forms of a verb are its two **voices.**

5d3 : Intransitive—No Passive

A verb may be used in the passive voice only when it is such that, if the sentence was put into the active voice, it would have an object. In other words, only transitive verbs have a passive voice.

5d4 : Unnamed 'Doer'

Sometimes the doer of the act is not named in a sentence in the passive form. In

The man *is sent* away

the complete expansion would be "The man is sent away by (whoever did the act)". But even though it is not possible to put the sentence into the active voice, because it would have no subject, it is clear that the verb *send* would have *the man* as object.

Test 9: Active and Passive

A. Put these statements into the passive form:

1. The woman made a coat.
2. He did the work.
3. I said something foolish.
4. They loved their country.
5. The manager offered me some work.
6. My mother let the house to a friend.
7. We will keep the money.
8. He did not take the book.
9. The guide took us to a church.
10. This is how we make chapatis.
11. They have sent for the doctor.
12. My sister made the bag.

B. Put a line under all the active verbs in this:

When it was getting near nightfall, and the moon was up but still not very bright, I took a look from my bed out over the wide sea, and there, where the sky and sea were joined together, was a strange white cloud. I kept my eyes on it from my bed till I saw a little black mark in the middle of it, which by degrees got greater and greater, and then I was conscious of what was about to take place. Twice in my existence I had seen this same thing, and I was certain that there would be very bad weather—thunder and rain and a sudden high sea, which would overcome the poor things who were now out on the ice, drinking and dancing and having a happy time. So great was my fear that it made me stronger than I had been for some time. I got out of bed and went to the window. I was so tired and feeble that it was impossible for me to go any farther, but I was able to get the window open.

5e. Verbs—Tense

5e1: Tense = Time

Verbs have different forms which are a sign of the time at which the operation takes place. These different forms are named **tenses.** There are only two simple tenses: the **present simple** and the **past simple.** The other tenses (see page 218) are formed with the help of other words.

5e2: Present Simple

The present simple tense of a verb as used with "I" (e.g., *I go*) is the form by which it is generally named. (This is not true of *be*.)

5e3: Past Simple

There are two ways in which the past simple tenses of verbs are formed from present simple tenses:

5e4 1: Additions

In some verbs, to which we give the name **weak verbs,** the past is formed by the addition of *d*, *ed*, or *t* to the present tense.

Present	Past
hear	heard
seem	seemed
spell*	spelt

If the last letter of the present form is a *d*, the *d* becomes changed to a *t* in the past form. But when the last letter of the present form is *t*, no change is made and the same form is used for past and present.

Present	Past
send	sent
put	put

5e5 2: Vowel Change

In other verbs, to which we give the name **strong verbs,** the past tense is formed by changing the vowel.

Present	Past
take	took
run*	ran
come	came
fight*	fought

Note: The past simple tense is sometimes named the **preterite.**

Test 10: Tense

Put a line under the verbs in these statements and give their voice and tense:

1. He is my friend.
2. We were sent here.
3. I gave her the flowers.
4. She put them on the table.
5. These words were said by me.
6. He seems to be healthy.
7. The dog is taken out every day.
8. The error was made by them.
9. The butter is kept in the ice-box.
10. You came late.

Verb	Voice	Tense
1. is	Active	Present

5f. Verbs—Person and Number

5f1: Three 'Persons'

The three **persons** of grammar are:

the first person:	the person talking
the second person:	the person talked to
the third person:	what is talked about.

5f2: Two 'Numbers'

These persons may be singular or plural in **number**.

5f3: 3rd Person Singular

The form of a verb is dependent on the person and number of its subject. A verb used with "I" is said to be in the first person singular, a verb used with "they" is said to be in the third person plural, and so on. With regular verbs the same form is used for all persons but the third person singular. This is marked by the addition of *s*. *Will* and *may* have no change of form for the third person singular.[1]

5f4: Do, Have, Go, Be

Four important verbs which are not regular are *be*, *do*, *have*, and *go*. The third person singular of *do* is *does*, of *have has*, and of *go goes*. *Be* undergoes other changes of form as a sign of person and number.

Person	Singular	Plural
First	I **am**	We **are**
Second	you **are**	you **are**
Third	he, she, or it **is**	they **are**

1. But the first two rules for the forming of plural nouns, given on page 199, have equal force in connection with the forming of the third person singular.
2. Non-Basic verbs of the same sort are *ought*, *must*, *can*, and *shall*.

5f5: —And Past

Had is the past tense of *have*; *did* is the past tense of *do*; and *went* is the past tense of *go* for all persons, singular and plural. The past forms of *be* are:

Person	Singular	Plural
First	I **was**	We **were**
Second	you **were**	you **were**
Third	he, she, or it **was**	they **were**

May is used without change for all persons, in the singular and in the plural.[1]

Test 11: Person and Number

A. Give the person, number, and tense of the verbs used in these sentences:

1. His friends had money.
2. My sister and I went to school every morning.
3. The two dogs are very dirty.
4. You did a wise thing.
5. You have sad hearts.
6. Serious trouble came to the family.
7. This is not the end of the story.
8. The gardener gave this wall a coat of paint.
9. We send news of an important discovery.
10. You took great care of the jewels.
11. The men got into debt.
12. He put the money in his pocket.

[1]. Non-Basic verbs of the same sort are *ought* and *must*.

B. Put down these forms, giving a subject which is in agreement with them:

1. the third person singular of the present tense of **may.** ....
2. the second person plural of the past tense of **be.** ....
3. the first person plural of the present tense of **make.** ....
4. the third person singular of the present tense of **let.** ....
5. the third person plural of the past tense of **go.** ....
6. the first person singular of the past tense of **get.** ....
7. the third person singular of the present tense of **be.** ....
8. the second person singular of the past tense of **do.** ....

5g. Auxiliary Verbs

5g1: Helpers

An **auxiliary** verb is one which is used with other verbs for forming tenses or for helping the sense in some other way. The auxiliary verbs are *be*, *have*, *will*, *may*, and *do*. Of these, all but *will* have important uses as full verbs.

5g2: 'Be' and 'Do'

Details of the part played by auxiliaries in forming tenses are given on pages 218-220. It may be noted here that in addition to the help they give in tense-building, *be* and *do*[1] have other uses as auxiliaries. Forms of *be* are needed for the passive voice, and forms of *do* are used in making statements with *not*. (*For a separate account of the uses of do, see* page 221.) Forms of *may* are used as a sign of desire or purpose.

Test 12: Auxiliary Verbs

Say, under A, if the verbs in sloping print are being used as full verbs or auxiliaries. If auxiliary say, under B, for what purpose it is being used.

1. The man *was* sent away.
2. They *did* not let me go.
3. *Do* your writing in this book.
4. He *is* a good man.
5. You *may* go now.
6. Come early, so that we *may* have a talk.
7. She *does* not take much interest in her work.
8. They *were* the first to go.
9. *May* you come back safe and happy!
10. The book *was* put in the drawer.

Verb	A	B
1. was	Auxiliary	To form passive of 'send'

5h. Verbal Nouns and Adjectives

5h1 : Formed from Verb, used as Noun

A **verbal noun** is a word formed from a verb which may be used as a noun. There are two sorts of verbal nouns : the **infinitive** and the **gerund.**

5h2 1 : The Infinitive (to come)

The Infinitive, with or without the word *to* in front of it, is the same form of the verb as the present tense when used with persons other than the third person singular. It will be seen that not all the uses of the infinitive are those of a noun, and that its behaviour is never completely that of a noun. It is not limited by an article or adjective, and it has no genitive form.

(a) It is used as the subject or object of another verb, or after a copula.

To answer is unwise (subject).
He attempted *to smile* (object).
To do that will be *to make* an error (subject and predicative use).

A transitive verb used in this way may take an object.

To make *money* is hard.
He hoped to make *money*.

The infinitive is used without *to* when it is the object of *do*, *may*, and *will*.[1]

I will *do* this.
You *may* go.

(b) It is used as the second of two objects of a verb.

I see this *to be* an error.
She forced her son *to do* it.

It is used in this way without *to* after *see*, *let*, and *make*.[2]

(c) It is used after a verb as an adverb, frequently giving the idea of purpose. This use is limited to the form with *to*.

He came *to get* his parcel.
We were angry *to see* so much waste.

In addition, infinitives are used as adverbs after adjectives.

I am happy *to be* your friend.
He was quick *to see* the point.

(d) It may be used after a noun as an adjective. This use, like the last, is limited to the form with *to*.

This is a man *to have* belief in.
The time *to make* changes has come.

1. Non-Basic verbs of the same sort are *can*, *must*, and *shall*.
2. Other verbs which may take an infinitive without *to* as an object are *dare* and *need*.

Test 13 : Verbal Nouns and Adjectives (1)

Put a line under the infinitives in these sentences and say (A) what part of speech they are being used as, (B) what work they are doing.

1. I have work *to do.*
2. He sent a man to put oil in the machine.
3. To see such a dirty house makes the woman angry.
4. The workman may put a coat of paint on the door.
5. You will get a letter to-morrow.
6. Her mother made her take the dress off.
7. The storekeeper hoped to get a good price.
8. To get coal from the earth is hard work.

Verb	A	B
1. to do	Adjective	Qualifying 'work'

5h3 2 : The Gerund (coming)

The Gerund is formed by the addition of *ing* to the infinitive without *to*. It is used like a noun as the subject or object of a verb, and in other ways, and it may have an adjective or an article before it.

We do *reading* and *writing*.
Her loud *crying* made him come quickly.
They will be pleased by good *cooking*.
The *copying* took a long time.
His trick is *balancing* on the top of a high building.

A gerund may have an object if the verb from which it is formed is transitive.

This is an instrument for opening *tins*.

5h4 : Formed from Verb, used as Adjective

A **verbal adjective** is a word formed from a verb which is used as an adjective. Verbal adjectives are of two sorts : the present participle and the past participle.

5h5 1 : The Present Participle

The present participle is formed in the same way as the gerund. It is an adjective formed from a noun.

(a) It is used to make clear that something named by a noun is doing, or has a tendency to do, the operation named by the verb from which the present participle is formed.

The *resting* army.
A *disgusting* book.

(b) Sometimes it is used to give the sense that another operation is taking place at the same time as the operation named by the verb.

Reading this book, he went to sleep.

It will be noted that a present participle, like a gerund, may have an object.

(c) It is used after forms of be in forming the continuous tenses.

Note :—*A gerund may be used before a noun for the purpose of limiting its senses. That it is a gerund and not a present participle will be clear from the sense.*

A landing place = a place for landing at (*not* a place which lands).
Working hours = hours in which work is done (*not* hours which do work).

Test 14: Verbal Nouns and Adjectives (2)

Put the gerunds from these sentences under the heading 'Gerunds' and the present participles under the heading 'Participles.' Where the gerund has an object, say what the object is. Under the heading 'Nouns Qualified' put the nouns which are qualified by the present participles :

1. Looking at small print makes my eyes bad.
2. Swimming in a rough sea is hard work.
3. Painting takes up a great part of my time.
4. Pushing the door open, he went in.
5. The turning wheel has a band on it.
6. This is an interesting book.
7. This room is used for dancing.
8. Running will make your legs strong.
9. I saw him pushing a small cart.
10. Controlling a great company is not a simple business.
11. Still seeming to be kind, he said he would give me the money.
12. Taking the ring, she gave a laugh.
13. The letter gave shocking news.
14. Keeping back facts does not make them less true.
15. While he was doing this I kept my seat by the fire.
16. He had a good look at the paper, turning it in all directions.
17. The man was looking very unhappy.
18. Reading stories will not give you knowledge.
19. What was his idea in saying that ?
20. When do you do your painting ?
21. He never goes out without his walking-stick.
22. Being tired of playing, we had a rest.
23. Did anyone see them fighting ?
24. He is very good at running.
25. Walking is more interesting than driving.

Gerund		Participle	
Gerund	Object (if any)	Participle	Noun Qualified
1. Looking at	small print	3. Pushing	he

5h6 2: The Past Participle

The past participle very frequently has the same form as the past tense :

get : *got*
send : *sent*
hope : *hoped*

The past participle of some verbs has *n* or *en* as an ending.

Sometimes the addition of this ending is made to the infinitive form :

take : *taken*

Sometimes the ending is put onto the past form :

break : broke : *broken*

Sometimes there is a special vowel-change in addition to the ending :

swim : swam : *swum*

In other verbs the past participle form is the same as the infinitive :

come : *come*
put : *put*

5h7: Operation Undergone

The past participle is an adjective formed from a verb and makes clear that the noun with which it is used has undergone the operation named by the verb from which the past participle is formed.

Bottled fruit is cheap.
The ruler was *hated* by all.

5h8: Passive Voice, Perfect Tense

In addition, past participles are used after forms of *be* to make the passive voice, and after *have* to make the perfect and past perfect tenses. When used with *have*, the past participle is not doing the work of an adjective. No infinitives, participles, or gerund are formed from *may* or *will*.

5h9: Perfect Forms

Infinitives, participles, and gerunds have a perfect tense.

1. The Perfect Infinitive

This is formed by putting (*to*) *have* before the past participle. It is used in the same way as the present infinitive, but makes it clear that the operation named by the infinitive took place at a time before the operation named by the verb of the sentence.

I was pleased *to have seen* him.

2. The Perfect Participle

(a) *Active form.* **This is made by using a past participle with the present participle of *have*. It makes clear that the person or thing named by the noun with which it is used has done the operation named by the verb from which the past participle is formed at an earlier time than that at which the operation named by the verb of the sentence took place.**

Having seen the picture, I went out.
The men, *having used* most of their money, were poor.

(b) *Passive form.* **This is made by putting the past participle of *be* between *having* and the past participle of the verb. It makes clear that the person or thing named by the noun with which it is used has undergone the operation named by the verb from which the past participle is formed at an earlier time than that at which the operation named by the verb of the sentence took place.**

Having been wounded, he was taken to hospital.

3. The Perfect Gerund

This is the same in form as the perfect participle, and like it may be active or passive. It is used for naming an operation done or undergone at an earlier time than the operation named by the verb of the sentence.

He was tired by *having walked* so far.
They were angry at *having been questioned.*

Test 15: Verbal Nouns and Adjectives (3)

Say what forms the sloping words in these sentences are. Under A put down 'infinitive,' 'gerund' or 'participle.' Under B put 'present,' 'past' or 'perfect.' Under C put 'active' or 'passive.'

1. It would have been simpler *to have said* no.
2. *Having been oiled,* the machine went smoothly.
3. After *having been given* food, the sailors were given clean clothing.
4. It had a most *disgusting* smell.
5. *Teaching* small boys is hard work.
6. She gave the man a reward for *having kept* her secret.
7. It may be necessary for me *to see* you a second time.
8. The expert did all the *talking.*
9. The Government will *have* more control.
10. It seemed sad for someone so young *to have had* so much trouble.
11. *Having given* my word, I was forced to go.
12. *Being kept waiting* makes him angry.
13. He gets no pleasure out of *reading.*
14. Even *to be* near him makes her happy.
15. He is very young *to have done* so much.
16. He went to the store *to get* some rice.
17. This is a picture of a man *turning* a wheel.
18. I went in after *shutting* the door.
19. *Farming* is very healthy work.
20. *Hearing* her cry I came up with my rifle.
21. *To go* at six would be late.
22. Who does the *milking* here ?
23. It was very unwise *to have taken* her out.

A	B	C
1. Infinitive	Perfect	Active

6. Prepositions

6a: Use

A **preposition** is a word which comes between a verb and a noun or pronoun or between two nouns or pronouns. It makes clear a relation between what is named by the verb or noun or pronoun on the one hand, and by the noun or pronoun on the other.

She took a book *from* the shelf.
The water goes *down* the drain.
That glove *on* the table is his.

6b: Development

In the first place the relation named by a preposition was one of direction or position in space or time, and most prepositions are in fact names of such directions or positions (*to, from, in, under, before, till,* etc.). But some prepositions which were at one time space prepositions have undergone changes of sense and are now the names of other sorts of relation (*of* from *off, for* from *fore* = before), and some have been formed for the purpose of naming different relations (*like*). In addition, a great number of the space prepositions have been given further senses. For example, *against,* used when something is fighting or attempting the destruction of another thing.

He saw that everyone in the room was against him.

And *through,* used in pointing to the cause of something.

He got the position through his father.

6c: Object

The word which comes after a preposition, naming the second thing which is taking part in the relation, is talked of as its object.

Test 16: Prepositions

Make a list, under A, of the prepositions used in these paragraphs, and another list, under B, of their objects:

A. Now the house was on the mountain-side where one might see it from a ship. Higher up, the thick wood went up into the clouds of rain ; under it the black stone had made sharp slopes down to the sea, and here was the resting-place of the old rulers. There was a garden about that house, in which were flowers of every colour ; and there were papaia trees on one side and breadfruit trees on the other, and straight in front, in the direction of the sea, a ship's high sail support had been put up with a flag on the top.

B. The car went on and on—up a hill, down a slope, across a river, through fields which were green with rice plants. It was past eight when we got to the end of our journey. The bed-room was small and dark. Over the bed was a shelf full of books. From the middle of the roof, an oil light was hanging. Near my window a dog was chained to the foot of a table.

A	B
on	the mountain-side

7. Adverbs

7a1: Use

An **adverb** is a word which says something about what is named by any part of speech but a noun or pronoun. It has a limiting effect on a verb, an adjective, a preposition, or another adverb, in the same way as an adjective has a limiting effect on a noun or pronoun, and so it is said to qualify these words.

7a2: Position

An adverb limiting, or qualifying, a verb is generally placed after it, but when qualifying any other part of speech it is placed before it.

(*with verb*). He went *slowly*.

(*with adjective*). I am *quite* happy.

(*with preposition*). We were *almost* at the place.

(*with adverb*). You did your work *very* badly.

7a3: Used With Verbs

When used with a verb, an adverb may make clear how, when, where, how frequently, or in what degree the operation takes place.

Adverbs of quality: *well, kindly, wrong, quickly.*

Adverbs of time: *now, tomorrow, then.*

Adverbs of place: *here, there, away, far.*

Adverbs of number or degree: *twice, very, almost, sometimes, quite, completely.*

7a4: Used With Non-Verbs

Almost all adverbs used with other parts of speech are adverbs of degree, even when formed from adjectives of quality (for example, *dearly loved* = much loved, *deeply interested* = very interested).

7a5: Adverbs of Quality

Adverbs of quality are commonly formed by the addition of *ly* to an adjective. A number of adjectives of degree or amount are formed in the same way.

Adjective	Adverb
quiet	quietly (*quality*)
complete	completely (*degree*)

7a6: No Change

Some adverbs have the same form as adjectives (*fast, long, wide, hard*).

7a7: 'Yes' and 'No'

Not and the answers *no* and *yes* are grouped as adverbs.

7a8: Adverb or Preposition?

Adverbs and prepositions are very like one another. It will be noted that a great number of prepositions may be used as adverbs of place, and the only thing which makes the adverb different from the preposition is the fact that it has no object.

The boys went *up* the mountain. (*preposition*)

The boys went *up*. (*adverb*)

Take your hat *off* your head. (*preposition*)

Take your hat *off*. (*adverb*)

Test 17: Adverbs

A. Give the adverbs which are parallel to these adjectives: sharp, good, one, happy, near, bad.

Adjective	Adverb
sharp	sharply

B. Put a line under the adverb in these statements. Then put under "A" the word it qualifies, say under "B" what part of speech that word is, and give under "C" the group into which the adverb goes: adverbs of quality, adverbs of degree or amount, adverbs of time, adverbs of place.

1. The train went slowly out of the station.
2. I will go to the town tomorrow.
3. He did his work well.
4. He is never happy.
5. The book is here on the seat.
6. The painting is almost done.
7. We are now completely out of danger.
8. The shoes are quite dry.
9. The girl was crying loudly for help.
10. I am going now.

A	B	C
1. went	verb	quality

7b. Adverbs—Degrees of Comparison

Like adjectives, adverbs may have degrees of comparison.

7b1: 'More' and 'most'

With most adverbs the comparative and superlative are formed by putting *more* and *most* in front of the positive form.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
quickly	more quickly	most quickly
beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

7b2: Like Adjectives

Some short adverbs have degrees of comparison like those of short adjectives.

near	nearer	nearest
soon	sooner	soonest

7b3: Not Regular

A small number of adverbs have forms which are not regular.

well	better	best
much	more	most
little	less	least
badly	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest

Test 18: Comparison

A. Make statements using:

1. The comparative of *well*.
2. The superlative of *strongly*.
3. The superlative of *badly*.
4. The comparative of *loudly*.
5. The comparative of *hard*.
6. The superlative of *quietly*.

B. Make a list, under A, of the adverbs used in these sentences and say, under B, in what degree they are used:

1. The sails are generally made of skins.
2. These boats are able to get along more quickly than the others.
3. He has done it better this time.
4. We went farther than you did.
5. She was the least troubled by the news.
6. He goes there more frequently than his friends.
7. Who is able to do it most naturally?
8. He took it more seriously than seemed necessary.
9. Come nearer to the table.
10. There will be a reward for the one who works hardest.

A. Adverb	B. Degree
1. Generally	positive

8. Conjunctions

8a1: Joiners

A **conjunction** is a word joining words or sentences. We have given an account of two other sorts of joining words—copulas and prepositions. A conjunction does not make a statement as a copula does, and it is not used, like a preposition, for pointing to space relations.

8a2: Thought Relations

The line of division between conjunctions and prepositions is not as sharp and clear as that between other parts of speech, but it is roughly true that prepositions are the names of physical relations, and conjunctions are the names of relations which we give to things in our thoughts about them.

8a3: Words or Sentences

In addition, the two parts of speech are different in their behaviour. Prepositions are used only for joining words: conjunctions are used for joining words or sentences.

8a4: Two Sorts

There are two sorts of conjunction:

8a5: 1. Co-ordinating Conjunctions

These are conjunctions joining words or word-groups or sentences whose positions in the structure of the statement are parallel and equally important. The chief co-ordinating conjunctions are: *and, or, but, for.*

He *and* I went out. (joining words)

The attack was made by land *and* by sea. (joining groups of words)

He came *and* I went. (joining sentences)

8a6: 2. Subordinating Conjunctions

A conjunction of this sort is one joining a dependent sentence (that is, a sentence forming part of the structure of another) to the chief sentence. The conjunction makes clear the connection which the dependent sentence has with the chief sentence.

There are a great number of subordinating conjunctions, forming the connection for statements about time, place, condition, purpose, reason, comparison and effect.

When I came in, he went. (*Time*)

I went *where* the others went. (*Place*)

If you go, I will go. (*Condition*)

I did it so *that* you would get well. (*Purpose*)

It was so dark *that* he was unable to see. (*Effect*)

I went *because* my mother was ill. (*Reason*)

I went as quickly *as* I was able. (*Comparison*)

Test 19: Conjunctions

A. Put the right co-ordinating conjunctions into these statements and say if words, word-groups, or sentences are joined by them.

1. The walls are clean.................the floor is dirty.
2. The mother.................her daughter had gone into the store.
3. Did you give the note to the manager................. to the boy?
4. He took up his bag.................went out of the house.
5. I was pleased to see him.................he was a very dear friend.
6. Go.................get my hat.................coat.
7. Do as you are ordered.................I will put you in prison.

8. The wind was cold..........................the water was warm.
9. She went out of the house..........................down the street.
10. The heat was very great..........................the dust got in my throat.

B. Put a line under the conjunctions in these sentences and say, under A, if they are co-ordinating or sub-ordinating. For those that are co-ordinating say, under B, if they are joining words, word-groups, or statements. For those that are subordinating say for what sort of statement the connection is made.

1. John and I were going to the sea today, but I was unable to go.
2. Though I did not go, he went and had a very good swim.
3. The water was so warm that he was able to go a long way.
4. If the current had not been so strong, he would have gone even further.
5. When he got out it was very late.
6. While he was getting dressed the sun went down and it got very dark.
7. His mother was angry with him when he got back because he was late for his meal.

A	B
1. Co-ordinating	words
Co-ordinating	sentences

9. Pronouns

9a1 : Used for a Noun

A **pronoun** is a word used in place of a noun for talking of or pointing to persons or things without naming them.

9a2 : Seven Sorts

Pronouns are of seven different sorts :

personal, possessive, reflexive, demonstrative, indefinite, relative, interrogative.

9a3 : Qualified by Adjectives

Some pronouns, but not all, may be qualified by adjectives. The personal pronouns are never so qualified.

9b1 : Personal Pronouns

These are the pronouns representative of the different persons of grammar. Personal pronouns have two forms, one for use as the subject of a verb, the **subjective** form, and the other for use as the object of a verb or preposition, the **objective** form. There are in addition different forms for singular and plural.

There are three pronouns representative of the third person : *he* (for males), *she* (for females), and *it* (for things). *It* and *you* undergo no change of form when used as objects.

9b2 : Possessive Pronouns

There are possessive forms of the personal pronouns. Those in one group are used like adjectives with the sense 'of me,' 'of you,' etc. :

My garden is beautiful.
Give me *your* hand.

There is another group of possessive forms which are used as subjects or objects, with the sense, 'the thing(s) of me, of you, etc.'

1st Person	2nd Person	3rd Person
mine, ours	yours	his, hers, theirs

Examples :

Mine are broken.
I have got *yours.*
She put sugar on *hers.*

Take note that the third person singular is the same in the two groups and that there is no form of *it* in the second group.

Person	Subjective	Objective	Possessive
1st Singular	I	me	my
2nd Singular	you	you	your
3rd Singular	he, she, it	him, her, it	his, her, its
1st Plural	we	us	our
2nd Plural	you	you	yours
3rd Plural	they	them	their

Test 20 : Pronouns (1)

A. Put a line under the pronouns in these statements and give their person, number, and form :

1. You have seen it.
2. I took it from her.
3. Mine is the green coat.
4. They put their books on the shelf.
5. The red pencil is not yours.
6. She put on her hat.
7. Will you come with us tomorrow ?
8. Put them on the table.
9. It has made him very sad.
10. Please give us our things.

Pronouns	Person	Number	Form
1. you	2nd	Sing. or plural	Subjective
it	3rd	Singular	Objective

B. Put in every space a pronoun which makes sense and give its person, number and form :

1. ....takes no interest in.......................... work.

2. ....is not the same as..............................
3. ....haven't done any damage to....................
4. ....arms are longer than...............................
5. ....got a stick to give..........................a whipping.
6. Haven't.........................any idea of the time?
7. ....seems to.......................... are wrong.
8. ....all put up..................................hands.
9. Who sent..........................here?
10. Give no attention to..........................words.
11. Take care..........................do not have a fall.
12. ....hair came halfway down..................... back.
13. The pleasure of..........................company is requested.
14. Do what seems right to..........................
15. Only a foolish person would put..........................hand in the fire.

Person	Number	Form
1. He. 3rd	Singular	Subjective
his. 3rd	Singular	Possessive

9b3 : Reflexive Pronouns

These are formed for the first and second person by the addition of *self, selves* to the possessive form (*myself, ourselves,* etc.), and for the third person by the addition of *self, selves* to the objective form (*himself, themselves,* etc.). A reflexive pronoun is used as the object of a verb or preposition when the object is the same person or thing as the subject of the sentence.

He got *himself* into trouble.

In this sentence, the reflexive pronoun, "himself", is the object of "got", which has "he" for subject.

9b4 : Emphatic

The forms which make the reflexive forms may be used in another way, for underlining or giving force to the important noun or pronoun in a sentence. Then they become **emphatic pronouns.**

I *myself* saw him do it.
The manager *himself* gave me the order.

In the first sentence, "myself" is put in to make it quite clear that "I" certainly saw him do it; in the second, "himself" is put in to make it clear that the "manager" and not any other person gave the order.

9b5 : Position

In the examples given, the emphatic pronoun is placed straight after the pronoun with which it is being used, but it is sometimes placed in other positions in the sentence.

He will *himself* go with you.
He will go with you *himself.*

Test 21 : Pronouns (2)

Say if the words in sloping print are reflexive or emphatic pronouns. If reflexive, give the verb or preposition of which the pronoun is the object; if emphatic, give the noun or pronoun whose force is increased by the emphatic pronoun:

1. I did the cooking *myself.*
2. They were warming *themselves* round the fire.
3. My father and I were not able to go *ourselves.*
4. The thing *itself* is of no value.
5. The boy gave *himself* a good wash.
6. The teacher *herself* gave it to me.
7. If you come you will see for *yourself.*

Pronoun	Reflexive, object of	Emphatic, putting force on
1. myself	—	I

9b4 : Indefinite Pronouns

These are the pronouns used for a person, thing, or group without pinning it down as any special one. Among the indefinite pronouns are those with which we make general statements. Examples of indefinite pronouns are:

everything, some, all, any.

9b5 : Demonstrative Pronouns

These are the pointing pronouns, *this* and *that,* with their plural forms, *these* and *those.*

What is *this*? *That* is a book.
What are *these*? *Those* are books.

This and *these* are used of persons or things which seem to the person writing or talking to be near him, in space or in his thoughts: *that* and *those* are used of persons or things which seem to be some distance away.

9b6 : As Adjectives

All four forms may be used of persons or things, and, in addition to being pronouns, may take the part of adjectives and say something about a noun.

This book is mine. *These* books are mine.
That boy is my brother. *Those* boys are my brothers.

9b7 : Relative Pronouns

These are pronouns joining a dependent sentence to the chief sentence. The relative pronoun, in addition to acting as a joining word, is the subject or object of the dependent sentence, which says something about a noun, pronoun, or verb in the chief sentence. *Who, which, what, that,* and *as* are relative pronouns. *Who* has these forms:

Subject	Object	Possessive
who	whom[1]	whose
which	which	whose or of which
that	that	—

[1] Frequently, in current English, the subjective form is used in place of this.

9b8: Persons and Things

Who is used only for persons, and *which* for things, but *that* is used for persons and for things. These pronouns are representative of a noun or pronoun in the chief sentence.

The men *who* are experts get more money.
They took the food *which* was on the table.
Those *that* have black seeds are ready.

In addition, *which* is sometimes representative of the complete statement made by the chief sentence.

They were unable to come, which was sad.

9b9: Antecedent

The word or part of a sentence for which a relative pronoun is used is its **antecedent.**

9b10: What

What is used only for things, with the sense, 'the thing or things which', and it has no antecedent.

He did *what* was necessary.

9b11: As

As is a pronoun when used in statements of comparison after *as, such,* or *the same.*

He took as much *as* would go in his bag.
This is not such a tall tree *as* I saw in the field.
It is not the same dress *as* you had on yesterday.

Test 22: Pronouns (3)

Put a line under the relative pronoun in every statement and give the antecedent, if any:

1. This is the book which you gave me.
2. The man to whom I was talking is the manager.
3. I have done what you said was right.
4. The woman, whose name is Mary, came from London.
5. The dog that gave me a bite is dead now.
6. They took him straight to hospital, which was wise.
7. What you do is no business of mine.
8. I will give you the same amount as you gave me.
9. Have you got the note which I sent you?
10. He is the only person who is able to do it.

9b12: Interrogative Pronouns

These are pronouns used in putting questions. The relative pronouns *who, which,* and *what* may be used as interrogative pronouns. The answer to a question formed with an interrogative pronoun gives the noun or pronoun etc. for which the interrogative pronoun is being used.

Who is that man? That man is the gardener.
Which is the cheapest? The green cloth is the cheapest.
What is in your hand? It is an apple.
What are you doing? I am painting.

The interrogative *who* undergoes the same change of form as the relative *who.*

9b13: As Adjectives

Which, what and *whose* may take the part of adjectives.

Which man did this?
What boy said that?
Whose shoes are on the shelf?

9b14: In Dependent Sentences

A dependent sentence starting with an interrogative pronoun may be made the subject or object of a verb.

Which way he was to do it had not been made clear.
He did not say *who* had gone.

Test 23: Pronouns (4)

Put down questions using interrogative pronouns to which these sentences might be the answers. Put a line under every interrogative pronoun:

1. He is my brother.
2. I gave it to the servant.
3. It is mine.
4. I said nothing.
5. The knife with the sharper blade.
6. It is my sister's.
7. I am reading *Robinson Crusoe.*
8. She is the head of the hospital.

10. Interjections

10a1: Fear, Surprise, etc.

An **interjection** is a word used as a sign of some feeling such as fear, surprise, and so on and marked by having the sign '!' after it or at the end of the sentence in which it comes.

10a2: Separate Units

Interjections may be used by themselves or in a sentence, but even when they come into the middle of a sentence, they are separate units forming no part of its structure. An interjection has no relation to any other word.

Alas! I had nothing to give him.
Hallo!
Oh, how foolish!

10a3: Groups Make—

Sometimes a group of words is used like an interjection with the sign '!' at the end.

What a shame!
How surprising of him!

10a4: An Exclamation

Such sentences are named **exclamations,** and the sign '!' is an **exclamation mark.**

11. Words Used as Different Parts of Speech

In the account of the different parts of speech some examples were given of words which, without any change of form, may be used as more than one part of speech. It was seen that *this* and *that* may be pronouns or adjectives, that some words (such as *long* and *wide*) are adjectives and adverbs, and that there is a group (of which *up* and *off* are examples) which are sometimes prepositions and sometimes adverbs.

These examples make clear an important fact about the English language. English words have no respect for the ordered divisions named parts of speech. They have a way of jumping from one part of speech to another. So it is not possible simply by looking at the form of a word to say what its part of speech is. To do this it is necessary to see the word in a sentence and take note of its behaviour.

In addition to the examples which have been given it is very common for the same word to be :

1. Noun and Verb

There is no *paste* in the pot (noun).
I will *paste* this picture into the book (verb).

2. Noun and Adjective

She saw a dark *liquid* in the cup (noun).
Liquid polish is used for the table (adjective).

3. Preposition and Conjunction

I will do nothing *till* Thursday (preposition).
This is all we have *till* the milkman comes (conjunction).

Some words may be used as more than two parts of speech. *Before*, for example, is a preposition, a conjunction, and an adverb.

1. Preposition

We came away *before* the end.

2. Conjunction

Before he took the thing off the floor he had a good look at it.

3. Adverb

You have said that *before*.

Test 24: Parts of Speech

Give the parts of speech of the words in sloping print and say what work they are doing :

1. Did you go *far* on your journey ?
2. He was an *only* son.
3. These men come from a *far* country.
4. The hair *on* his head is grey.
5. *Only* the tallest men went into the army.
6. These *garden* flowers have a *sweet* smell.
7. Putting *on* a *light* blue coat, she went out.
8. She gave the baby a *sweet* as a reward for not crying.
9. I will *walk* in the *garden* in the silver *light* of the moon.
10. The water was coming into the boat as quickly as he was taking it *out*.

Word	Part of Speech	Work
1. far	adverb	qualifying the verb 'go'

12. Word Order

12a. Normal Order in Statements

12a1 : Subject—Verb—Object

When a sentence is one which makes a statement, the normal order is :

Subject—Verb—Object
The boy—takes—the cake

12a2 : Prepositions

Most acts are done in some direction. If the direction is named, the preposition, together with the noun and any other words which make this part of the statement complete, is generally placed after the object.

The boy—takes—the cake—off the table.

12a3 : Adverbs

In a short sentence, an adverb which says something about the verb is generally placed at the end, though it is quite frequently put before the verb and may have other positions.

The boy—takes—the cake—off the table—quickly.

12a4 : Conjunctions

A conjunction joining the sentence to another sentence naturally comes last of all.

The boy takes the cake off the table quickly (and.....).

This order, on which the structure of English sentences is based, is the one which it is most natural to make use of in giving an account of an event.

12b. Qualifying Words

12b1 : Adjectives

An adjective, if it is not a predicative adjective, is normally placed before the noun which it qualifies, though a group of words doing the work of an adjective (*blue as the sky, which only I have seen*) is put after the noun.

12b2 : The Article

An article comes before any other adjective qualifying a noun, though sometimes it comes after the adverb by which an adjective is qualified (*quite a good idea*).

12b3 : Adverbs

An adverb qualifying any part of speech but a verb has to be put as near as possible to the word which it qualifies.

12c. Change of Order

12c1 : For Force

The regular order is changed when special attention is desired for one part of the sentence. The important words are then placed at the start of the sentence or at the end.

In that man you foolishly put your belief.
The only girl who had any common sense was Mary.

12c2 : For Interest

Frequently, the regular word order is changed simply to make the rhythm more pleasing and keep the interest of the hearer or reader. One quickly gets tired of hearing or seeing a number of sentences one after another which all have the same form.

Test 25 : Word Order (1)

Put the parts of these sentences which are in sloping print in a more important position :

1. I will do this *for you* but for no other person..................
2. He has *at last* got a good position..............................
3. That was *the best picture he did*..................................
4. He said, "*You may have it*" with a smile..................
....
5. Though his behaviour seems *strange*, he is quite a normal boy...

12d. Wrong Order

12d1 : False or Foolish

Care has to be taken not to put words together in such an order that the rules of grammar make them seem to have a relation to one another which is not in agreement with the sense desired. The effect of putting the wrong words together may be to give a false idea or it may be simply foolish. Here are some examples :

I will give you only sixpence if you are a good boy.
He took his mother to a theatre the night before he went away to make her happy.
The black cat on the cushion which has no teeth is very old.
He said he would put right the errors foolishly.

Test 26 : Word Order (2)

Put right errors of order in these sentences :

1. The boy gave suddenly the ball a kick.
....
2. The woman was put onto the bed with a broken leg.
....
3. He went from the room in which he had seen her two hours later..
....
4. She put gloves on her hands which were dark grey.
....
5. The man is here whom you gave the money to............
....

12e. Word Order—Questions

12e1 : No Change

Most questions are formed by a change of word order. The only ones not so formed are those in which the subject is an interrogative pronoun or in which part of the subject is an interrogative adjective or the interrogative adverb *how*.

12e2 : Verb before Subject

Questions with the simple present or past of *be* or *have* are formed by putting the verb before the subject.

Statement	Question
This is the right place.	Is this the right place ?
He has a key.	Has he a key ?
You were ill.	Were you ill ?
They had enough time.	Had they enough time ?

12e3 : Use of 'Do'

Questions with the simple present or past of other verbs are formed by putting the present or past of the auxiliary *do* before the subject and the infinitive of the chief verb after the subject (see p. 46). In this way the 'verb before subject' rule for questions is kept without the normal word order having to be changed.

Statement	Question
You see.	Do you see ?
He got my note.	Did he get my note ?

12e4 : Auxiliary before Subject

Questions using complex tenses made with auxiliaries or verbs which are joined on to helping verbs like *will* and *have* are formed by putting the auxiliary or other helping verb before the subject and the chief verb after it. The forms of auxiliary and chief verb are those with which the complex tense is normally made.

Statement	Question
He will do it.	Will he do it ?
They have gone.	Have they gone ?
It would be wise.	Would it be wise ?

13. Phrases and Clauses

13a1: Phrase—No Verb

A **phrase** is a group of words which has no verb and does the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

He took a table from *inside the house.*

The engineer *of the ship* had his boxes *on the landing stage.*

In the first sentence, *inside the house* is the object of the preposition *from* and so takes the place of a noun.

In the second sentence, *of the ship* qualifies *engineer* as an adjective would; *on the landing stage* qualifies *had* (it gives the place of the act) and so is doing the work of an adverb.

13a2: Clause—Verb

A **clause** is a group of words which has a verb, and does the work of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. A clause is not a complete statement. Its form is such that it is not possible for it to be used by itself. In this way it is different from a sentence. A sentence with a clause in it has two verbs, and the verb not in the clause is the chief verb of the sentence.

1. Noun Clause

That he will come is certain.

Here the clause is the subject of *is.*

I did not see *where he put it.*

Here the clause is the object of *see.*

He said (*that*) *he would come at six.*

Here the clause is the object of *said.*

When a noun clause starting with *that* is the object of a verb, the word *that* may be dropped out without changing the sense of the sentence.

We were talking of *what he would do.*

Here the clause is the object of the preposition *of.*

2. Adjective Clause

He took the box (*which*) *I had made for him.*

Here the clause qualifies the noun *box.* Like *that, which* may be taken out of a clause which is the object of a sentence without changing the sense.

This is the house *where I go to school.*

Here the clause qualifies the noun *house.*

3. Adverb Clause

When he comes, I will go.

The clause qualifies *will go.* It gives the time at which the act named by the verb will take place.

Because he was angry, he went away.

The clause qualifies *went.* It gives the reason for the act named by the verb.

13a3: Clause—Subject and Object

It will be clear that, in addition to having a verb, a clause has a subject and may have an object or a predicative objective, etc.

Test 27: Phrases and Clauses

A. Say if the words in sloping print are phrases, clauses or sentences:

1. He had a knot of hair *on the top of his head.*
2. She had a son *who was very badly formed.*
3. *The Queen,* seeing her friend, *was very happy.*
4. She was so wise *that nobody gave any attention to her looks.*
5. *After a short time* they all went back.
6. *Because of his brains* he had a great number of friends.
7. Though he was clever *he was unable to make money in business.*
8. She said *she would give her answer in a year's time.*
9. Before her words were ended *the change was made.*
10. He had seven sons, *who were still very young.*

B. Put a line under the phrases in these statements, say (under 'sort') if they are noun, adjective, or adverb phrases, and give (under 'reason') your reason.

1. The man at the door had a red coat.
2. He will not come before tomorrow.
3. The woman in the store was angry.
4. He put the bottle on the shelf.
5. A cow is under the tree in the field.
6. Answers to these questions will be given in a later paper.
7. A young woman in a black coat came to the door.
8. He said something in a loud voice.
9. I had a letter from my friend.
10. He did it in a very strange way.

Phrase	Sort	Reason
1. at the door	adjective	qualifying the noun 'man'

C. Put a line under the clauses in these statements, say (under 'sort') if they are noun, adjective or adverb clauses, and give (under 'reason') your reason.

1. He said that he would come.
2. While I was working, he was playing.
3. The man who saw the boy is not here now.
4. I will come when I am ready.
5. This is the picture which I was talking about.
6. He did not say how he did it.
7. When I got to the river I had a swim.
8. He is older than I am.
9. What he said is secret.
10. He got so angry that he was unable to say anything.

Clause	Sort	Reason
1. that he would come	noun	object of *said*

14. Sorts of Sentence

14a1 : Simple

A **simple sentence** is one which has only one verb.

I took some money from my pocket.

14a2 : Complex

A **complex sentence** is one which has one or more clauses.

When I got to the store, I took some money from my pocket.
The man who was there had a black coat.
He said that it was time to go because the meal would be ready.

14a3 : Compound

A **compound sentence** is a group of two or more sentences which are joined by a co-ordinating conjunction.

It was dark and I went out.
I put the light on, for it was dark.

Test 28 : Sentences

Say if these sentences are simple, complex, or compound :

1. We went in the train which had the greatest engine.
   ....
2. I got through the test without making an error.........
   ....
3. He took up a stick and gave the animal a blow ....
   ....
4. You and I have less fear than the others....................
   ....
5. When the ship came in, I saw my friend.....................
   ....
6. I said he was wrong..
   ....
7. The grass was very wet and dirty.......................................
   ....
8. The place where the boys are bathing is not safe.........
   ....
9. Do not put the wrong stamp on it.................................
   ....
10. Birds come to our island in the summer but they go somewhere warmer in the winter.................................
    ....

15. Words in Apposition

15a1 : No Copula

When two different names are given for a person or thing, without a copula or other joining word between, the noun or pronoun forming the second name is said to be in **apposition** to the first name. A word in apposition makes the sense of the word with which it is used more sharp or clear. It comes straight after it and may be qualified by an adjective, a phrase, or a clause.

Examples :

John, the *gardener*, is working in the garden.
(The noun *gardener* is in apposition to *John*, the subject).
I have seen *Edinburgh*, the most beautiful *town* in Scotland.
(The noun *town* is in apposition to *Edinburgh*, the object).
I gave it to my *friends*, the *boys* who were with me.
(The noun *boys* is in apposition to *friends*, the object of the preposition *to*).
I gave it to my friends, *those* who were with me.
(The pronoun *those* is in apposition to *friends*, the object of the preposition *to*).
I will take the *books*, the *ones* you have no need of.
(The pronoun *ones* is in apposition to *books*, the object).

Test 29 : Apposition

Put a line under the words which are in apposition, and say which word they are in apposition to and what part it takes in the sentence.

1. Our teacher, Mr. Smith, said we were not to do that.
2. Hong Kong, a place with a good natural harbour, has become a great town.
3. I have been ordered to get in touch with you, the owner of the building.
4. Give me my writing-book, the red one.
5. These jewels, all he had which was of value, had been taken from him.

16. Indirect and Direct Objects

16a1 : Direct

As we have seen, transitive verbs, prepositions, gerunds, infinitives, and present participles may have objects. To this sort of object we give the name **direct object.**

The woman made a *coat.* (object of verb *made*)
John was in the *house.* (object of preposition *in*)
Reading *books* is a pleasure. (object of gerund *reading*)

16a2 : Indirect

In the sentence,

I gave him a book.

book is the direct object : it might be used as the *only* object of the verb *gave*. But there is a second object, *him*, and to this we give the name *indirect object*. It would not be possible for *him* to be the only object of *gave*, because the sense of the statement would then not be complete. It may be noted that it is generally possible to put a *to*-phrase or a *for*-phrase in place of the indirect object. For example,

I gave *him* a book = I gave a book *to him*.
I got *him* a book = I got a book *for him*.

16a3 : Passive—New Subject

If we put a sentence which has an indirect object into the passive form, the direct object or the indirect object may become the new subject.

The *book* was given to him by me. (old direct object)
He was given the book by me. (old indirect object)

16a4 : Object—Sense Relation

Direct objects do not all have the same sort of sense relation to the verb. Sometimes the object is not the thing which undergoes the operation named by the verb but is something caused or given existence to by the operation named by the verb.

John built a house.
She painted a picture.

Here the *house* and the *picture* had no existence till after the act named by the verb had taken place (that is, till after *John built* and *she painted*).

16a5 : Objects of Adjectives

Some adjectives may take objects, as in

He is *like* his *brother*.

where "*brother*" is the object of "*like*."

Test 30 : Direct and Indirect Object

A. Put down under the right headings the verb, direct object and indirect object in these statements :

1. I sent you a note yesterday.
2. I gave the boy an anna.
3. He took you the wrong horse.
4. I will get you a new hat.
5. The Committee gave John a reward.
6. Take your mother this basket of fruit.
7. The servant was giving the table a good polish.
8. The girl sent her sister a letter.
9. The man made me a new coat.
10. She said she would give us some tea.

Verb	Direct Object	Indirect Object
1. sent	a note	you

17. Complex Tenses

As has been said earlier, the only simple tenses are the present simple and the past simple. All other tenses in English are formed with the help of auxiliaries.

17a. Future and Future-Past

17a1 : Future

The auxiliary used for this, for all three persons, is *will*. It is used with the infinitive of the chief verb. The future tense is a sign that the operation named by the verb is to take place at some future time.

17a2 : Future-Past

This is formed by using the past tense of *will* (*would*) with the infinitive of the chief verb (*e.g.*, I would go, he would go, etc.). It is used as a sign that the operation named by the verb will be future to some point in past time.

I *will* go (future).
He said (past time) he *would* go (future-past).

17b. Perfect Forms

17b1 : Present Perfect

This is formed by using the present tense of *have* with the past participle of the verb.

I *have walked*.
He *has walked*, etc.

It is used as a sign that some operation started in the past is complete only at the present time, or that it had effects which have gone on up to the present time. We say,

She *went* away yesterday. (past)

but,

She has gone away (perfect). (So you are not able to see her).

17b2 : Past Perfect

This is formed by using the past tense of *have* with the past participle of the verb. Its form is the same for all persons.

I *had walked*.
You *had walked*, etc.

This is used when the operation named by the verb took place in the past at some time earlier than that at which the operation named by some other verb took place in the past.

I *had walked* three miles before I *came* to the town.

This makes clear that at the time when "I came to the town" the operation of walking was complete. This tense is sometimes named the **pluperfect.**

17b3 : Future Perfect

This is formed by using the future tense of *have* with the past participle.

I will have walked.
You will have walked, etc.

This is used when the operation named by the verb is to take place in the future at some time earlier than the operation named by some other verb is to take place in the future, or earlier than some named time.

I will have walked three miles by tea-time.

This makes it clear that before tea-time the operation of walking will be complete.

17b4 : Future-Past Perfect

This is formed by using the future-past tense of *have* with the past participle.

He said he *would have walked* three miles by tea-time.

The English Tenses

1. Active Voice

Form / Tense	Simple	Perfect	Continuous	Perfect Continuous
Present	he makes	he has made	he is making	he has been making
Future	he will make	he will have made	he will be making	he will have been making
Past	he made	he had made	he was making	he had been making
Future-Past	he would make	he would have made	he would be making	he would have been making

2. Passive Voice

Form / Tense	Simple	Perfect	Continuous	Perfect Continuous
Present	it is made	it has been made	it is being made	—
Future	it will be made	it will have been made	—	—
Past	it was made	it had been made	it was being made	—
Future-Past	it would be made	it would have been made	—	—

Test 31 : The Tenses

A. Give the tense, person, and number of the verbs in sloping print :

1. Nothing *had been moved* before the police came.
2. When you get the chance we *will make* the journey.
3. No one here *has seen* him.
4. In his hand he *had* a blue pencil.
5. They *will have gone* to bed before we get back.
6. The men *have* no guns.
7. By tomorrow they *will have planted* these seeds.
8. We *had hoped* for so much till this man took control.
9. If you do not take the seats in they *will get* wet.
10. New developments *have forced* me to give up my old beliefs.

Verb	Tense	Person	Number
h. b. moved	Past perfect	3rd	Singular

B. Put the verbs in these sentences into (a) the perfect form, (b) the future tense, (c) the past tense.

1. The boys *have* a swim every day.
2. We *put* our papers on the table.
3. The stone *is* hard.
4. He *comes* by himself.
5. They *go* to the river early.
6. He *does* teaching in a school.
7. I *send* the milk to them.
8. He *gives* me his pencil.
9. The farmer *makes* a hole in the earth.
10. The wheels *go* round slowly.

Verb	Perfect	Future	Past
have	have had	will have	had

17c. Continuous Forms

The **continuous tenses** are used when talking of an operation not as done and complete, but as something which goes on over a stretch of time.

17c1 : Present Continuous

This is formed by using the present tense of *be* with the present participle of the verb.

I am running.
You are running, etc.

This tense is used when the operation named by the verb is still in process at the present time.

17c2 : Past Continuous

This is formed by using the past tense of *be* with the present participle of the verb.

I was running.
You were running, etc.

This tense is used when the operation named by the verb was in process at a certain time in the past.

17c3 : Future Continuous

This is formed from the future tense of *be* and the present participle of the verb.

I will be running.
You will be running, etc.

This tense is used when the operation named by the verb will be going on at some time in the future.

17c4 : Future-Past Continuous

This is formed from the future-past tense of *be* and the present participle of the verb.

He said he would be working when I came.

17d1 : Present Perfect Continuous

This is formed from the present perfect tense of *be* and the present participle of the verb.

I have been running.
You have been running, etc.

This tense is used when the operation named by the verb went on for some time in the past and till the present.

17d2 : Past Perfect Continuous

This is formed from the past perfect tense of *be* and the present participle of the verb.

I had been running.
You had been running, etc.

This tense is used when the operation named by the verb went on for some time in the past, but before the operation named by some other act which took place in the past or before some named time.

17d3 : Future Perfect Continuous

This is formed from the future perfect tense of *be* and the present participle of the verb.

I will have been running.
You will have been running, etc.

This tense is used when the operation named by the verb will go on for some time in the future, but before the operation named by some other verb takes place in the future, or before some named time.

17d4 : Future-Past Perfect Continuous

This is formed from the future-past perfect tense of *be* and the present participle of the verb.

I would have been running.
You would have been running, etc.

Test 32:

A. Give: A: the name of the tense used. B: the parallel continuous tense. C: the name of the tense used in B.

1. He *makes* a box.
2. He *put* the bottle on the table.
3. My friend and I *played* with a ball.
4. I *have painted* all the window-frames.
5. The fire *has burned* all night.
6. The machine *will have worked* for twelve hours.
7. I *got* the boys some fruit.
8. They *swim* across the river.
9. You *will do* that tomorrow.
10. She *went* to see a picture.
11. The cook *has made* the bread.
12. By the end of the year I *will have worked* here for five years.

Verb	A	B	C
1. makes	Present Simple	is making	present continuous

B. Give: A: the name of the tense used. B: the parallel passive form.

1. He *was making* a hole in the earth.
2. A boy *saw* the man in the house.
3. I *offered* him the position.
4. Electric power *was turning* the machine.
5. The boy *will whip* the dog.
6. Someone *had taken* my knife.
7. I *stitched* my coat with black thread.
8. Mary *is putting* your things in your box.
9. I *stamped* the letter and sent it to the committee.
10. The manager *will control* all the company's works.

Verb	A	B
1. was making	Past Continuous	was being made

18. Imperative Form of the Verb

When a verb is used to give an order, the **imperative** form is used. This is the same as the infinitive without *to*. The subject, *you*, is not put in.

Go to him tomorrow morning.
Look at the blackboard.
John, *put* down that book.

In the last example the person who is being talked to is named, but the word *John* is not the subject of the sentence: it is a **vocative** use of the noun designed to get the attention of the person talked to. The subject is *you*, as in the other examples.

19. The Uses of Do

The verb *do* is used in a number of special ways which it is necessary to give some account of.

1. It is used as a straightforward verb with the sense "go through (an act), give effect to."

I *do* my work well.

2. It is used, as we have seen, before the subject of a sentence which has the infinitive of a verb (without *to*) after it, to make the present or past tense of a verb in the question form.

Does he come this way every day?
Did you say you were pleased?

Take note that it is not used in forming questions which have an interrogative pronoun as their subject or an interrogative adjective or adverb as part of their subject.

3. It is used before *not* and the infinitive without *to* to make the present or past tense of a verb in statements with *not*. Statements of the sort which are made with *not* are named **negative** statements.

He *does not* come this way every day.

4. It is used with the infinitive without *to* in place of a simple present or past tense to give more force to a statement. In talking, the word is weighted strongly and so gets the attention of the hearer.

He *did* come, though he had said he wouldn't.

5. Lastly, *do* is frequently used in the second half of a compound or complex sentence in place of some verb used earlier in the sentence.

I got there before he *did* (= before he got there).

NOTE:—When a tense other than the simple present or past is used, the auxiliary of the complex tense is used by itself in place of *do*.

He said he would come, and he *will*.

In the same way, *do* is not used for giving force to a statement or for making questions or negative statements when the tense of the verb in the sentence is formed with an auxiliary or when the verb is *be*. With these tenses, questions are formed by changing the order of the words and negative statements are made by putting *not* before the participle or infinitive in a complex tense, or after the verb when this is a simple tense of *be*. There is no form parallel to that using *do* for giving force to statements which have these verbs.

Test 31

Say which uses of do *come into these sentences, numbering them* 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 *in agreement with the uses which have been outlined.*

1. Did he take the book? ( )
2. Do not go into that room. ( )
3. I did see him, after waiting a long time. ( )
4. I said he was to go and he did. ( )
5. We did some reading today. ( )
6. He does not get up very early. ( )
7. Much of what he does is unnecessary. ( )
8. Did you not get the paper? ( )

PART 5

GRAMMAR (2): RULES AND USES

1. The Verb

V1. Comes and Is Coming

V1a: Present Continuous

The *is coming*[1] form (the Present Continuous) is the form chiefly used for all acts in the present. It is the sign that an act is in process at the present time.

Not: The cook is unable to see you now; she *makes* bread.
But: The cook is unable to see you now; she *is making* bread.

V1b: Regular Acts

The *comes* form (the Present Simple) is used for operations which are done again and again. It is needed, then, whenever such words as *regularly, frequently, generally, sometimes, every day,* or their opposites, are, or might be, used of the operation, and there is no reason for putting it in the past or the future.

Not: He *is* generally *going* to church on Sunday.
But: He generally *goes* to church on Sunday.

V1c: Conditions

The *comes* form is used for operations (such as "have" in the sense of "be the owner of") which naturally go on for some time, so that they may be looked on more as conditions than as acts.

Not: He *is having* two houses.
But: He *has* two houses.

Not: The woman *is seeming* tired.
But: The woman *seems* tired.

V1d: Acts of Mind

Acts of the mind are clearly of the sort which go on for some time, and so for these the *comes* form of the verb is used even when there is no suggestion that the act is done regularly or frequently.

Not: He *is seeing* the point of your argument.
But: He *sees* the point of your argument.

V1e: General Fact

The *comes* form is regularly used in statements of general fact, which are true at all times.

Not: The sun *is coming* up in the east every morning.
But: The sun *comes* up in the east every morning.

[1] Here and in other places, the third person singular is used as representative of the complete tense.

V1f: Present for Future

The *is coming* form is sometimes used of a future operation, if the time in question is clear from the rest of the statement. This use is commonest in talk, as a looser form to give a freer effect.

Ex: I *am going* to London tomorrow.

V1g: Present for Past

The *comes* form is sometimes used (in writing) for acts in the past, to give a more living picture of past events.

Ex: Napoleon on his white horse *goes* slowly down the line.

Test V1

Make the necessary changes in these sentences:

1. He *is* now *seeing* that it would have been better to do something different.
2. The man says that every morning he *is going* to work at the same time.
3. At last the Government *gives* its attention to the steps necessary for the safe-keeping of young persons.
4. We have news that money *is got* together for those whose property has been damaged.
5. He is not the sort of person who *is frequently* making errors.
6. This flower *is having* no smell.

V2. Came and Has Come

In talking of an act which took place before the present, it is sometimes hard for learners to see when to make use of the form *came*, and when of the form *has come*. *Came* (the Past Simple) is used simply as a sign that the act was done in the past; our interest is in the fact that it is past. *Has come* (the Present Perfect) is used as a sign of connection between the past and the present. It makes, in fact, a statement about the present; our interest is not in when the act was done but in the fact that it is *now* complete, or (see V2c), though started in the past, is still going on not in the act itself but in its effect on the present.

V2a: Came

For this reason the *came* form s regularly used when the time of the past act is given (*yesterday, two years back,* and so on), or made clear as in an account of events taking place one after the other.

Ex: I *gave* the key to my sister yesterday.

Not: First *have come* the goats, then the monkey.
But: First *came* the goats, then the monkey.

V2b: Has Come

Has come is used when the time of the act in the past is not given or made clear, and frequently goes with time words pointing to the present, such as *now, today, this week, at last*.

Ex: I *have given* the key to my sister and am unable to get into the house.

Not: At last the Society *gave* up the idea of having a meeting in present conditions, and *made* this decision public in this morning's paper.

But: At last the Society *has given* up the idea of having a meeting in present conditions, and *has made* this decision public in this morning's paper.

V2c: Joining of Past and Present

The *has come* form, or more commonly the *has been coming* form (a complex of the Continuous and the Perfect, uniting the idea of the act as a process with the placing of it in past time), is used of acts which were started some time before the present and are still going on.

Ex: The secretary I have now *has been* with me for four years.

Not: The work *is going on* for a month and will not be ended till a year from now.

But: The work *has been going on* for a month and will not be ended till a year from now.

Test V2

Make the necessary changes in these sentences:

1. We are making attempts to get the Committee interested in this question, which for a long time *is given* no attention.
2. The airman gave a talk about his experiences at Government House last night. Mr. Bingham and Mr. Bruce *have been* among those present.
3. Up to now, in the High School, private teaching *was given* to those going in for the Cambridge test.
4. The cry of every Briton is "Get your goods from Britain." Is it strange, then, that India *took up* the idea of which we ourselves have made so much?
5. The Ruler of the Maldives *has been attacked* by the newspaper on October 2.
6. He *is getting* the news into his paper first every time.
7. In the last two or three weeks the judge *is changing* his opinion.
8. At the meeting last Saturday, suggestions for controlling the disease *have been put* forward.
9. The loss in farm produce caused by the dry weather is valued at hundreds of millions of pounds, and is said to be increasing every day. The heat in St. Louis now *went up* to 133 degrees.
10. In the past two years the town government *had* little power, and for this reason the public *takes* a special interest in the selection of representatives.
11. Up to the present the Soviet Government *had* made no move in the direction of an agreement.
12. Mr. A., who *has gone* to Calcutta last week on business, has sent a letter saying that he will not be back till tomorrow.
13. The law *has been made* public on June 28.
14. The two young men, who are on a journey round the earth, got here yesterday from Cannanore. Starting from Ahmedabad on June 1, they *went* by now 15,000 miles.
15. This is the third time Mr. P. *is* made head of the organization.
16. About two hundred men *are* not at work for the last three days as a protest against the manager's order.
17. Those who *were* in prison at any time for more than a year will not be given places on the Committee.
18. Only the best materials have been used in my new house, and it *took* all my money.
19. The rats *have done* much damage to the grain the year before last.
20. The two armies *are fighting* for over a month now.

V3. Came and Was Coming

V3a: Acts in Process

The form *was coming*, like the form *came*, is used of the past, but in a different way. *Came* is used of an act looked on as a complete event; *was coming*, of an act looked on as an event in process, still going on at the time in question.

Not: The carriage *went* slowly when suddenly it came to a stop.

But: The carriage *was going* slowly when suddenly it came to a stop.

Note: The "coming" in 'was coming' *and* 'is coming' *(see V1e) may, in fact, be taken as picturing a condition in place of a simple act, and that is why in Basic teaching such forms are grouped with the adjectives, which makes it possible to give a clear account of their use without going into the complex story of the verb.*

V3b: While

While, for reasons which will be clear from its sense, generally has the *was coming* form after it when it is used in connection with past time.

Not: Mr. A. had a heart attack on Monday while he *went* to his office.

But: Mr. A. had a heart attack on Monday while he *was going* to his office.

Test V3

Make the necessary changes in these sentences:

1. While he *went* into the field a gun was fired.
2. All the time the music *went* on the boys were stamping their feet.
3. Mr. N. said that while Germany was building airplanes England *did* nothing.

4. When you saw me on the country road I *took* the dog for a run.
5. While he *put* the money in his pocket the prisoner gave him a blow on the head.

V4. Had Come

V4a : Simple

As *has come* (the Present Perfect) is used of an act which was complete before the present, so *had come* (the Past Perfect) is used of an act which was complete before some time, named or made clear, in the past. *Had come* is in the same relation to the point in the past before which the act took place, as *has come* is to the present, and, but for the fact that the time in the past has to be made clear, if not by naming it, at least by the given order of events, their uses are completely parallel (see V2b and V2c).

Ex : I *had given* the key to my sister and was unable to get into the house.

(*Here the time is not named in the sentence, but would be clear from the rest of what was being said.*)

Make a comparison between :

He *has got* there by now, and
He *had got* there by then.

Not : The meeting, which *has* been fixed for yesterday, only *got* as far as naming a committee when the news came of the fall of the Government.

But : The meeting, which *had* been fixed for yesterday, *had* only *got* as far as naming a committee when the news came of the fall of the Government.

V4b : Continuous

The form *had been coming* is a complex of Past Continuous and Past Perfect, and is used of an act looked on as going on before some time in the past. *Had come* and *had been coming* have, in addition, a use, parallel to that given for *has come* and *has been coming* in V2b, in talking of facts started before the time in question and still going on at that time.

Ex : It *had been raining* for four days when I got there, and still gave no sign of stopping.

V4c : Agreement

In sentences using the *had come* form, take care that the verbs in all clauses pointing to the time before which the act took place are in the past tense. Do not make the error of using the present *has come* form in such clauses.

Not : The manager, who had been ill for some time, *has given* up his position.

But : The manager, who had been ill for some time, *gave* (at some time in the past) or *had given* (before some time in the past) up his position.

Test V4

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. The man had not been questioned by the police though they *have had* some doubt about his right to be there.
2. Mr. P. was on his feet protesting that the motion *was put* to the meeting in the wrong way.
3. The trouble came to an end only after six of the men *were taken* to prison.
4. The railway, which *has* up to that time *been transporting* rice in used bags without protest, suddenly made a rule against taking it in any but new bags.
5. Mr. N., who is acting for the owners, *had* now *sent* a letter to the company.
6. The Soviet move is the outcome of discussions with France, which for the past month *had been attempting* to get Russia interested in a new agreement about the East.
7. He came away before he *has had* time to get used to the place.
8. Up to last year I *have* never *seen* the sea.
9. His right to do law work had been taken from him because he *has had* a Jewish mother.
10. The wind *has been blowing* hard till night came.

V5. Conditional Sentences[1]

V5a : Present or General Condition

In sentences making a statement of a condition which may be true at the present time, or which is part of a statement of cause and effect true at all times (so that the *if* has the force of *whenever*), the present tense is used in the *if*-clause, and the present or the future, whichever is needed by the sense, in the clause of effect.

Exx : If it *is* Monday today, he *is* here.
If (that is, *whenever*) water *is heated* to boiling-point, steam *is produced*.
If he *has taken* the book, it *is* not on the shelf.
If you *send* the letter now, she *will* get it tomorrow.
If he *is making* me a box, it *is* very good of him.

V5b : Future Condition

If the condition may become true in the future, the present tense is used in the *if*-clause, the future tense in the clause of effect.

Exx : If Prem *does* well in the test, his father *will be* pleased.
If you *are working* when I get back, I *will* not *come* in.

Not : If the Swarajists *will* not *get* in, it will be a damaging blow to their political future.

But : If the Swarajists *do* not *get* in, it will be a damaging blow to their political future.

[1] For conditional sentences not using *if*, see G5g. The rules in connection with tenses are the same when *if* is not put in as when it is.

V5c : Past Condition

If the condition may have been true in the past, a past tense is used in the *if*-clause and in the clause of effect.

Exx : If you *did* that, you *were* wrong.
If he *was having* a sleep, he *was* not *watching* the road.

V5d : Against the Facts

When the condition is against the facts, in the sense (a) that it is not possible, or (b) that it might have come about before and may do so still but has so far not done so, the Past Simple is used in the *if*-clause, the Future Past (the *would* form) in the clause of effect.

Ex : If cats *had* wings, they *would be* able to go through the air (where the thought is : but that is not possible).

V5e : No Longer Possible

When the condition, though at one time possible, is now no longer so, the Past Perfect is used in the *if*-clause, the Future-Past or Future-Past Perfect (the *would have had* form), whichever is needed by the sense, in the clause of effect.

Ex : If Govinda *had done* a little more work, he *would have got* on better.

Test V5

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. If they go to him for help, he *would* give it with pleasure.
2. If the law *was* not put through they would have made a strong protest.
3. It would be best if the rates of payment *are* made the same for every part of the country.
4. If a comparison *was* made between the two systems, you would have seen which was the better.
5. They will give up their positions to-morrow if the others *were* not sent away.
6. If you *will give* your support, you *are helping* a good cause.
7. If a list of the marks *was* given, there will be more competition among the boys.
8. If the Government *gave* more attention to the question in the past, it would not be causing so much trouble now.

V6. Agreement of Tenses[1]

V6a : Noun and Adverb Clauses

In complex sentences, if the chief verb is in the past, the verbs in all dependent clauses but those named in V6b-d have to be in the past. If the chief verb is in the present or the future, the verbs in dependent clauses may be in any tense. (We have seen this rule working in connection with conditional sentences and the Past Perfect.)

[1] See in addition V4c.

Exx : He *got on* well, because he *did* his work with care.
I *will give* you an account of the experience *I had* on my way here.

Not : He *gave* me some money because he *is* pleased with me.

But : He *gave* me some money because he *was* pleased with me.

V6b : Adjective Clauses

If a dependent clause is an adjective clause, its verb may be in any tense in agreement with the sense.

Ex : He *has taken* the book which *was given* to her yesterday, and which she *will be needing* tonight.

V6c : General Fact or Frequent Act

If a dependent clause makes a statement of general fact, or about some regular behaviour, it is put in the present tense even when the chief verb is in the past.

Exx : The theory that the sun *goes* round the earth *was seen* to be false.
He *seemed* pleased with the news that I *have* a swim every morning.

V6d : Than and as . . . . as

The verb of a dependent clause starting with *than*, *as* (. . . . *as*), or *as much as* may be in any tense in agreement with the sense.

Exx : My daughter *is* not as happy at this school as she *was* at the other.
You *had* more fruit in the garden last year than you *have* this.
He *gave* you as much as he *is going* to give me.

V6e : Indirect Statement

It is to be specially noted that indirect statements, that is, statements recording in the form of a *that*-clause something *said*, *hoped*, *feared*, *seen*, and so on, by another person, or by oneself at another time, come under the rules (V6a-d) for other dependent clauses, and in putting any statement into this form, the tenses of its verbs have to be changed, if necessary, in agreement with those rules.

Not : It has been pointed out by the writer that the feeling of the country *would* be tested in the coming discussions (where what was said was "will be tested.")

But : It has been pointed out by the writer that the feeling of the country *will* be tested in the coming discussions (because after a recording verb in a present tense, no change in the tense of the verb recorded is necessary).

Not : He said he *will* not go till he *had seen* the manager.

But : He said he *would* not go till he *had seen* the manager.

Not : It *was noted* that the boiling-point of water *was* lower at the top of a mountain.

But : It *was noted* that the boiling-point of water *is* lower at the top of a mountain.

Test V6

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. He made a request for a public hearing so that the facts *may come* to the knowledge of everybody.
2. Though they *have said* that her father would come back, the girl was certain that she *will* never *see* him again.
3. The statement that any attempt to keep the Jews out of Palestine *will* not have the approval of America was made by Mr. B. at Manchester.
4. He was so tired that he *has been* unable to go to sleep.
5. It was given out that if the men did not go back to work, others *will* be put in their places.
6. It was said in the paper that the ship which went down *has had* on it Germans and Italians who *are* friends of Britain.
7. He went back to the train after he *had* a drink.
8. Mr. A. P. said that he *did* everything in his power to keep the law from going through, because he *is* of the opinion that, if it did, it *will* be a bad thing for the country.
9. It *seemed* that there have been secret discussions between Russian and Germany.
10. He *has a fear* that his daughter *had* had a fall.
11. The discovery has been made that earth *was* formed of a number of different substances.
12. The teacher says that there was no trouble till this boy *has come* into the school.
13. The airplane made a forced landing because something *has* gone wrong with the engine.
14. They will see Mr. G. at Wardha to-morrow, when some decision *would* be come to.
15. He did not go because while the wind was blowing in that direction it *would be* hard work to take the boat round the point.
16. Before you *have come*, I had little company.
17. He sent a note regretting that he *will* be unable to go to the meeting.
18. I am surprised that he *had had* no news of his son before this.
19. It came to our attention yesterday that an error *has* been made in your account the day before.
20. I have no fear that what I have done *would* be the cause of bitter feeling.

V7. Active and Passive Voice

V7a : Feeble Passive

Do not make use of the passive voice where it is not needed. The use of the passive when there is no good reason for not using the active gives a feeble and unstraightforward effect, even when it is good English, and frequently it is not.

Not : His writing is hard to *be made* out.

But : His writing is hard to *make* out.

V7b : Two Passives

Even worse is the use of two unnecessary passives, one after the other, which is frequently the outcome of starting the sentence in the wrong way.

Not : The men *were ordered* by the manager *to be sent* away.

But : The manager *gave* orders for the men *to be sent* away.

V7c : Strong Passive

The passive is rightly used in place of the active when this makes it possible for the most important words in the sentence to come first[1].

Ex : The Government's behaviour to their representatives *has* been the cause of strong feeling among the workers.

There is nothing wrong with this sentence, but it would have greater force if it were put the other way round, *i.e.*,

Strong feeling *has been caused* among the workers by the Government's behaviour to their representatives.

Test V7

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. The ring *was given to me by him to be put* in a safe place.
2. The argument *was put forward by the other side* that no woman had ever given us great music.
3. For a delicate boy, conditions at a great school are sometimes hard *to be put up with*.
4. If the work *is not able to be done by you* without making your face dirty, you will have to let your brother do it.
5. The gardener said that bees *had been kept by him* for a number of years.

V8. Infinitive, Gerund & Participle

V8a : The Perfect Infinitive

When the act for which the infinitive is used took place before that named by the chief verb in the statement, the *to have come* form (the Perfect Infinitive) is necessary.

Ex : *I am pleased to see your baby sister*
has the sense :
I am pleased that I see your baby sister.
But if the sense needed is :
I am pleased that I saw your baby sister.
to make use of the infinitive we have to say :
I am pleased to have seen your baby sister.

[1] Or, sometimes, last. See S8a.

Not : She is said *to be* very beautiful when she *was* young.

But : She is said *to have been* very beautiful when she *was* young.

V8b : After 'might', 'was to'

After *might, was to,* and so on, to give the sense that the event which was possible or designed *has not taken place*, the Perfect Infinitive is used.

Ex : *You might have come when you said you would* (where the sense is : *but you did not*).

(*This rule is like the one given in V5e about conditional sentences.*)

Not : The tree was *to be cut* down yesterday, but the men did not come to do it.

But : The tree was *to have been cut* down yesterday, but the men did not come to do it.

V8c : Wrong Use

Whenever the act named by the chief verb takes place at the same time as, or before, that named by the infinitive, the Present Infinitive is used, even when the chief verb is in a past tense. Take care not to make use of the Perfect Infinitive after such forms as *would have come, might have come, was to have come,* under any conditions but those given in V8a and V8b, which are not very frequent with these forms.

Ex : At that time, I would have been happy never to have had the experience, but now I see that it was a good thing for me in some ways (where the experience came before the time at which I would have been happy if I had not had it).

But :

I would have been happy never to have the experience, but there was no way of getting out of it (where the experience does *not* come before the feeling, and *to have had* would be an error).

Not : He would have been the first *to have gone*, but for the death of his mother.

But : He would have been the first *to go*, but for the death of his mother.

V8d : 'For' with the Gerund

For with the gerund (the four forms of which are : *having, having had, being had, having been had*) is used as a sign of purpose only in talking of the purpose of an instrument and so on.

Ex : *A brush is used for painting.*

Take care not to make the error of using it in such statements as :

I have come for seeing him.

The right form for general statements of purpose is :

I have come to see him, or :

I have come for the purpose of seeing him, or :

I have come so that I may see him[1] (see V9).

[1] Or, in Wider English : *I have come in order to see him*, or : *with the object* (or *intention*) *of seeing him* (= with the purpose of . . . .).

Even in talking of the purpose of an instrument, the infinitive with *to*, or the *-ing* form with *for the purpose of*, may be used.

Not : They are lifting the bridge *for letting* the ship go through.

But : They are lifting the bridge *to let* the ship go through.

Not : Attempts are being made *for getting* the Government interested in this suggestion.

But : Attempts are being made *to get* the Government interested in this suggestion.

V8e : Subject of Gerund

When the 'subject' of a gerund (that which does the operation named by it) has to be put in, it is put before the gerund in the Possessive Case. The subject of a gerund has to be put in when it is not the same as the doer of the operation of the chief verb (not necessarily named, if the verb is passive, but clear from the sense). If the noun naming the subject of a gerund is used in another part of the sentence, a possessive pronoun making clear the relation is used before the gerund.

Ex : *After going into the army, I did not see him for two years*

has the sense :

After I went into the army, I did not see him for two years.

But if the sense needed is :

After he went into the army, I did not see him for two years,

it is necessary to say, when using the gerund :

After his going into the army, I did not see him for two years.

Not : Till *coming away*, the teacher gave me a test every day.

But : Till *my coming away*, the teacher gave me a test every day.

V8f : Object of Gerund

The gerund may be used as a noun and verb in one, or as a regular noun. In the noun-verb use, it may take an object, which is put straight after it like that of any true verb. The complete phrase so formed is then used as a noun.

Ex : *I am in fear of his damaging the books.*

In the simple noun use, *of* has to be placed before the object, when there is one, and *the* before the gerund itself.[1]

[1] A gerund is sometimes seen with *the* before it and no *of* after it, but this is not a form to be used by any but the most expert.

Example : *The giving to the judges of such crimes any more power than they have would not have the desired effect.*

Here the form is used so that the sentence may not be made more complex by the use of a second *of*. But there are a number of other ways of making such a statement without getting into this trouble, for example, by using the infinitive, *to give*, in place of the gerund.

Ex : *The taking of the bridge was done at night.* Here *taking* is a straightforward noun like *organization* in *the organization of the work*.

Not : *Making of these tests* is a complex process.
But : *Making these tests* is a complex process
or
The making of these tests is a complex process.

V8g : Subject of Participle

The 'subject' of a participle, if not the same as that of the chief verb, has to be made clear by an expansion of the phrase, or by some change in the order of the sentence.

Not : While *walking* on the front, her hat went into the sea.
But : While *she was walking* on the front, her hat went into the sea.

Test V8

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. Mr. N. D. had a talk with the French representative this morning *for making* ready for fuller discussions between the two countries.
2. *On putting up* their hands, *he* took the guns from their pockets.
3. She was *to go* to a teacher of music in Vienna last spring, but the war put an end to that idea.
4. It would have been better *to have sent* the fruit by river to Howrah.
5. *After coming out* of the water, *his clothing* was nowhere to be seen.
6. I am against the *man* being questioned before he is fully conscious.
7. He was ready *to have been taken* to prison, but he would not say a word about his friends.
8. The manager has been sent to Madras *for taking care* of the company's interests there.
9. *On offering* to give him help, *he* said it was very kind of me.
10. The metal has been taken to the experts *for being tested.*
11. *Newly painted* a beautiful shade of blue, *the girl* was very pleased with her little room.
12. *The putting the salt industry* on its feet has been well rewarded.
13. The farmer *would be wiser to have taken* his produce to market before the weather got so warm.
14. There is no need *for taking into account* the profit made after April.
15. An organization of sugar experts was said *to be started* some years back, but it came to nothing.
16. *In attempting to get away, the cord* got twisted round the animal's neck.
17. Other countries have made offers *for giving* their help in making peace.
18. The question of a new harbour *might be taken* up by the Government before, but there was no money for such an undertaking.
19. *On turning round* to see who had said my name, *someone* gave me a violent push.
20. The servant has gone to town *for getting* a new dress.
21. I am unhappy *to say* anything *to have made* you angry, but my statement was quite true.
22. The meal was *to be* ready by now, but the cook seems to be ill.
23. *The sending out all these folders* is hard work.
24. He was disgusted at the *boy* giving signs of fear.
25. Will you give your approval to *me* making the attempt ?

V9 : 'May' and 'Might'

In purpose clauses starting with *so that*,[1] the auxiliary *may* is used after a present or future tense of the chief verb, and *might* after a past tense. Do not make use of *will* or *would*[2] in such clauses.

Not : I will send for the servant so that he *will* be questioned.
But : I will send for the servant so that he *may* be questioned.
Not : He put his hat on so that the sun *would* not give him a pain in his head.
But : He put his hat on so that the sun *might* not give him a pain in his head.

Exercise V9

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. In the opinion of the Committee, some advertisement is necessary so that the public *would* be made conscious of the need for workers.
2. I am going out into the garden so that I *will* see the airplanes better.
3. He will have a talk with your father so that he *is* not angry with you.
4. They got the carts over to the side of the road so that the cows *would* be able to go past.
5. Mr. Henderson said that the discussions had been made private so that they *would* be quite free.

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[1] In Wider English *that* by itself, or the idiom *in order that*, is frequently used.
So that is used not only as a sign of purpose, but as sign of effect. As a sign of effect, it takes after it whatever tense of the verb is in agreement with the sense.
Exx : *He put the jelly on a high shelf, so that the boy had to get on a seat to get it. There has been a burst in the water-pipe, so that you will not be able to have a bath this morning.*
Take care not to get these two uses mixed.

[2] When talking or writing loosely, however, English persons do frequently make use of *would* in place of *might*. This is one of the rules of grammar which is in process of being changed.

V10. Agreement of Verb & Subject

A verb has to be in the same number as its subject. There is not much danger of overlooking this when the subject is a simple one, and comes before its verb, but there are a number of less straightforward relations which have to be watched.

V10a : There is, There are, etc.

In the special use of *there* with verbs such as *be* and *seem*, the subject of the verb is what comes after it, and the verb has to be in agreement with this.

Not : There *has* been great *falls* of rain in the mountains.

But : There *have* been great *falls* of rain in the mountains.

V10b : Danger of Attraction

Take care not to make the error of putting a verb in the wrong number because of the attraction of a noun or pronoun coming nearer to it than its subject.

Not : The *profits* of the business for the year in question *was* Rs. 7,261.

But : The *profits* of the business for the year in question *were* Rs. 7,261.

Not : He says that the *facts* given in the expert's account of the undertaking *makes* it clear that no serious trouble is being experienced.

But : He says that the *facts* given in the expert's account of the undertaking *makes* it clear that no serious trouble is being experienced.

V10c : Additions to the Subject

The addition to a singular subject of a phrase starting with *with, in addition to, together with,* and the like[1] does not make the subject plural.

Not : The fear of a loss of produce, together with the uncertain condition of the European market, *have* sent the price up.

But : The fear of a loss of produce, together with the uncertain condition of the European market, *has* sent the price up.

Not : At that minute Sir G. S., with Lady S. at his side, *were* coming up the steps.

But : At that minute Sir G. S., with Lady S. at his side, *was* coming up the steps.

V10d : Compound Subject

A subject formed of more than one noun or pronoun joined by *and* is plural.

Not : A *dog* with a smooth coat *and* a yellow *cat was* playing in the garden.

But : A *dog* with a smooth coat *and* a yellow *cat were* playing in the garden.

[1] In Wider English, phrases starting with the idiom *as well as* come under the same rule.

V10e : Collective Nouns

A noun naming a group, such as *army, police, number,* is sometimes looked on as singular and sometimes as plural. If all the group together is being talked of, it is taken as singular ; if the units of the group are what is in mind, it is taken as plural. Frequently one is as good as the other, but in using such nouns, make your decision as to which number is best for your purpose at the start of the sentence, and see that the verbs are in agreement with it all through.

Not : A great number of prisoners *has* been put to death.

But : A great number of prisoners *have* been put to death.

Not : The army *are* under the control of the Government.

But : The army *is* under the control of the Government.

V10f : Every, etc.

Nouns with *every* before them, and the words *everybody, every one, nobody, no one, anybody, anyone,* are singular and take singular verbs.

Not : *Every* tree and flower *have* been placed with such art that the effect is a picture.

But : *Every* tree and flower *has* been placed with such art that the effect is a picture.

Not : Though the things taken are themselves of little value, the crimes are serious because of the trouble *every one* of them *make.*

But : Though the things taken are themselves of little value, the crimes are serious because of the trouble *every one* of them *makes.*

Exercise V10

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. A number of houses and an office building *has* been damaged.
2. Every one of the three men *have* made an attempt to get up the mountain before.
3. There *seems* to be two answers to that question.
4. This is said to be the tenth smash at the bridge this year, and the number of deaths *are* six.
5. Mr. C. B. has said that the idea on which the taxes *is* based is completely wrong.
6. The wounding of a policeman and eight other persons *have* made strong steps necessary.
7. The woman with her little dog *were* last seen going down to the station.
8. Every nation and every Government *is* responsible for this trade war.

9. A short account of the town and some of its attractions *are* given in the advertisement.
10. Nobody, British or Indian, *are* of the opinion that the present system is the best possible one.
11. The group *is* working in complete harmony with one another.
12. Common sense and humour *is* necessary in political work.
13. There *has* been bitter protests about the food at the school.
14. The sounds of the horn *was* the sign for a general outburst.
15. A number of the boys *has* no warm clothing.
16. The loud sound of the bell and the touch of the stick *seems* to have made the snake violently angry.
17. The medical man, together with his helper, *have* been kept to be questioned.
18. Everybody who has given help to the cause *are* listed in the paper.
19. An increase in the number of persons attacked by those diseases *have* been recorded.
20. The Police Department *have* control of weights and measures.

II. General

G1. Pronoun

G1a: Agreement

A pronoun has to be in agreement with its antecedent in number, person, and gender. This rule is most frequently broken in connection with collective nouns, and with the words *every, everybody,* and so on, listed in V10f. The rules given in V10e and V10f for verbs are equally important for pronouns.

Not: Everyone has to take *their* card wherever *they go.*

But: Everyone has to take *his* card wherever *he goes.*

Not: It is to be hoped that the Government, in making its decision, will not be moved by any outcry against *their* questioning of the judges.

But: It is to be hoped that the Government, in making its decision, will not be moved by any outcry against *its* questioning of the judges.

G1b: Antecedent Necessary

Take care, when you make use of a pronoun, to see that its antecedent has been named and is quite clear.

Not: In other parts of India the *relations* of the owners with the workers were very good, and *they* gave help to their organizations.

But: In other parts of India the *relations* of the owners with the workers were very good, and the *owners* gave help to the workers' organizations.

Not: Ponsford put up a good fight against Barnes, but *he* was doing better than ever, and gave *him* little chance of making any runs.

But: Ponsford put up a good fight against Barnes, but *Barnes* was doing better than ever, and gave *the other* little chance of making any runs.

G1c: General Antecedent

Do not make use of a pronoun as representative of an idea or fact which, though it may in a way be present in what goes before, has not been given the form of a noun or noun clause.[1]

Not: A meeting of political workers was of the opinion that no good would be done by sending representatives to London. But in view of Mr. Gandhi's approval of *it*, no decision was come to.

But: A meeting of political workers was of the opinion that no good would be done by sending representatives to London. But in view of Mr. Gandhi's approval of *such a step*, no decision was come to.

G1d: Feeble Antecedent

Do not make use of a pronoun in relation to a word which is not important in what goes before, a word, for example, in the possessive case, or one which is present only as part of a complex word.

Not: Whenever a poor woman came to Jane Addams' noted Hull House, *she gave help.*

But: Whenever a poor woman came to Jane Addams' noted Hull House, *she was given help.*

or

Whenever a poor woman came to Jane Addams' noted Hull House, *Jane Addams gave help.*

Test G1

Make the necessary changes in these sentences:

1. There is some fear about the bridge. The river has got to a high level, and if *it* gives way great damage will be done.
2. Great approval has been given to the suggestion by the Committee, which has undertaken to do everything in *their* power to get support for it.
3. When the medical man was looking at the baby's tongue, *it* gave him a bite.
4. Society in the town has been shocked by such behaviour in *their* streets.

[1] We are not saying that a pronoun may not have as its antecedent a complete clause or sentence. It is clear that pronouns have all through this book been used in this way. But if rightly so used, an expansion of the pronoun to the noun clause, "*that* (the sentence or clause)," is possible.

Example: *He is bad-humoured, which makes me unhappy* (where *which* = *the fact that he is bad-humoured*).

5. Make use of the bread knife for cutting *it*, and put the butter on *the bread* with this one.
6. At the end of August the organization goes into *their* new building.
7. The men's knives were taken by the police, and *they* have not seen them again.
8. The woman gave him a cake from the oven by the fire. *It* was still burning.
9. It was noted that the body was still warm, though the man had been dead for some time. *It* was said to be caused by the heat from the burning building near by.
10. The vessel was of great value, and its destruction will be a sad blow to your mother. It is *the third* she has had today.
11. It is said that there will be a further serious fall in the price because of Java's sending cheap goods to India. *It* is attempting to keep its grip on the Indian market.
12. I was in fear of his bursting a blood-vessel. *It* came up into his face till he was the colour of copper.

G2. Definite & Indefinite Article

G2a : 'The' Used

The is used before singular and plural nouns in naming some thing or things looked on as special. A thing may be special in the sense that it is something pointed out earlier, something marked off from other things of the same name as the only one having the special qualities given,[1] or something of which there is only one in existence. When in doubt if *the* is to be used, put to yourself the question "What——?" or "Which——?" If the answer is "That——", then the use of *the* is right.

Exx: *The* cotton of India is noted everywhere. (What cotton? That of India.)
The sun is very bright today. (What sun? The one and only sun in our experience.)
The boy will not be happy without his cat. (What boy? The boy we have been talking about.)

G2b : 'The' Not Used

If to the question "What——?" the answer is "Some——," "Any——," "All——," "——generally," *the* and *a* are used only in the special conditions noted in G2c and G2f. In all others, no article is used.

Ex: Cotton is produced in India. (What cotton? Some cotton, or cotton in a general sense.)
Boys are full of tricks. (What boys? All boys, boys generally.)

[1] Not, however, necessarily, the only one *in existence* having such qualities, but the only one in the group which the person making the statement has in mind. If I say: "Do you see the red-haired boy?" he is naturally not the only red-haired boy there is, but the only one in view, or among the persons I am looking at.

G2c : General 'The'

The may, however, be used before a singular noun, **if it is not an abstract or material noun,** to give the same general sense as the plural used by itself.

Ex: *The* horse is a beautiful animal (= Horses generally are beautiful animals).

G2d : Abstract and Material Nouns

Abstract and material nouns, and the word *man* in the general sense, are the only ones ever used in the singular without an article, or a demonstrative or possessive adjective, before them.

Ex: Belief gives power.
Milk is a (sort of) food.
(But *not*: Ant is an insect.)

G2e : Indefinite Article

A (or *an*, see G2h) is used before a singular noun, **if it is not an abstract or material noun,** in naming something which is not special in any of the senses given in G2a, but is simply one of the things having that name.

Ex: Have you *a* pencil? (No special pencil, simply "one of the things named pencils.")
Have you *a* pencil with a rubber on the end? (Still not a special pencil, simply one of a special *sort* of pencil.)
But
Have you *the* pencil I was using this morning?

G2f : General 'A'

A (or *an*) may, in addition, be used before singular nouns, **if they are not abstract or material,** to give a general sense. This use, though very like the use of *the* noted in G2c, is not quite the same in its point of view. *A* used in this way has the force of: *any, whichever is taken*; the general *the* has the force of: *the group of which this name is representative.* It is clear, however, that the two uses are, in effect, very much the same, and the one will frequently do quite as well as the other.

Ex: *A* horse is a beautiful animal (any horse, horses generally).

G2g : 'A' for 'A sort of'

A (or *an*) may be used before abstract and material nouns in the singular to give the sense: *a sort of.*

Ex: This is *a* paint on which the sun has no effect.
He was overcome by *a* disgust deeper than words.

G2h : 'A' and 'An'

A is used before all words starting with the **sound** of a consonant, even though the first **letter** of the word may be a vowel. *An* **is used** before all words starting

with the sound of a vowel, among which are some whose first letter is an unsounded *h*.

Ex : *a* cow, *a* horse, *a* one-armed man, *a* united front, *an* egg, *an* umbrella, *an* hour.

Test G2

Make the necessary changes or put the right article in these sentences :

1. He said that [ ] false and foolish statements he had been pointing out were a public danger.
2. Have you *the* suggestion to make ?
3. A number of examples of this form of *the* government are seen in *the* history.
4. The competition took place in *a* beautiful weather.
5. I am a lover of *the* harmony.
6. That is *a* untrue statement.
7. He has hate of everything cruel.
8. Death is no respecter of *the* persons.
9. There are signs that [ ] new organization has been secretly undermining the power of the Government.
10. A talk on the place of [ ] teacher in *the* society today was given by Sir R. E.
11. *An* united country is very necessary in time of war.
12. The suggestion has had *a* great approval in most newspapers.
13. [ ] dog is [ ] four-footed animal.
14. There is no doubt that the poor woman is in *a* unbalanced condition.
15. Mr. A. said [ ] rates of *the transport* had been increasing every year.
16. Please give *the* attention when [ ] teacher is talking.
17. George Washington was [ ] first person to be named the father of his country.
18. The woman had *a* argument with the storekeeper about the price of the stockings she had seen in the window.
19. When you go to a new country *the* adjustment to its ways is necessary.
20. In [ ] society of [ ] future it is hoped that there will be no wrongdoers, and so no need for *the* punishment.
21. The question of [ ] right of newspapers to give news which it is desired to keep secret is a delicate one.
22. He has [ ] mind which takes pleasure in *the* complex reasoning.
23. Some of the reactions of [ ] body are automatic.
24. He said that [ ] earth was getting nearer to the sun every year.
25. [ ] interests of [ ] working man have not been kept in view by the Committee.

G3. Relatives

G3a : 'Who' and 'Which'

Who is the relative pronoun used of persons, and *which* is the relative pronoun used of things and of all animals but man. Even when a thing or animal is talked of as *he* or *she*, never make use of *who* in relation to it.

Not : "She is a beautiful ship," he said, pointing to the *Queen Mary, who* was going by.
But : "She is a beautiful ship," he said, pointing to the *Queen Mary, which* was going by.

G3b : Collective Antecedent

A noun naming a group of persons has *which* as its relative pronoun if it is taken as singular (that is, if the group is looked on as a unit), *who*, if it is taken as plural (that is, if the separate persons in the group are what is in mind). (See V10e).

Not : *Families who* are in need may get help from the society.
But : *Families which* are in need may get help from the society.
Not : Some of the sailors went down with the ship, but a *number, which* were good swimmers, got to land.
But : Some of the sailors went down with the ship, but a *number, who* were good swimmers, got to land.

G3c : No Other Pronoun

In clauses using a relative pronoun in a certain relation, such as that of subject or object, it is wrong to put in another pronoun in the same relation.

Not : They have some things to get, which they will have to go to Simla *for them.*

But : They have some things to get, which they will have to go to Simla *for* (or, *for which* they will have to go to Simla).

G3d : 'Such' and 'Same'

The right relative after *such* and *same* is *as*. Never make use of *such* or *same* in connection with a different relative pronoun or an adverb, as, for example, *such* ——*who*, the *same*——which, *such*——where.

Not : It would be the business of *such* a committee *which* we have been talking of to give a hearing to all protests.
But : It would be the business of *such* a committee *as* we have been talking of to give a hearing to all protests.

Not : The system will be the *same which* has been used with such good effect in Bombay.
But : The system will be the *same as* has been used with such good effect in Bombay.

G3e : Such . . . . that

The form *such that* (or *such . . . . that*) is a conjunction, and is only to be used in starting a clause of effect.

Not : The fall gave him *such* a shock *as* he was unable to get up for some minutes.
But : The fall gave him *such* a shock *that* he was unable to get up for some minutes.

Not : The effect was *such as* he was in bed for weeks.
But : The effect was *such that* he was in bed for weeks.

Test G3

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. The key to the story is given in the first act of the play, which you did not see *it*.
2. I am not interested in such amusements *which* you have here.
3. You are not looking at the question from the same angle *which* he is.
4. He is one of a group *who are* named "The Society of Friends."
5. The mother bird, *who* is teaching her young to make use of their wings, keeps talking to them in bird language.
6. In such industries *like* the steel industry there is little room for further expansion.
7. The boy went round in a circle in the dark wood, coming back to the same place *where* he was before.
8. We have no canvas such *as* rain will not go through it in time.

G4. Possessive Case[1]

G4a : Wrong Use

It is safer not to put nouns representative of other than living things in the possessive case. It is not wrong with all of them, and there are even a number which are regularly put in the possessive in special phrases (some of which are listed hereunder), but till you are quite certain which may be so used, keep out of danger by using *of*.

Not : The manager is going to the hospital, where the men wounded by the *roof's fall* have been taken.
But : The manager is going to the hospital, where the men wounded by the *fall of the roof* have been taken.

Not : The *paper's edge* is not straight.
But : The *edge of the paper* is not straight.

But take note of some regular uses of the possessive with names of things : *a day's work, a month's payment, an hour's play, a year's rest, his heart's desire, the sun's rays, at death's door, the mind's eye.*

[1] The use of the possessive case with the gerund has been noted in V8e.

G4b : Two Possessives

Do not make use of two nouns in the possessive case together if it is possible not to do so, and certainly never of more than two.

Not : She has gone to *her mother's friend's house.*
But : She has gone to *the house of her mother's friend.*

G4c : Two Owners

In talking of the property of two or more owners whose names are joined by *and*, all the names are put in the possessive case if the property is that of everyone separately, only the last name if the property is that of them all together.

Ex : *John's* and *Mary's books* are here (*that is*, the books of which John is the owner and the other books of which Mary is the owner).
But
John and Mary's book will come out in the winter (*that is*, the book of John and Mary together).

G4d : 'Of' Not Clear

Take care not to make use of *of* as a sign of the possessive relation when it might be taken in a different sense, or in a different sense, when it might be taken as the sign of the possessive.

Ex : His existence was made unhappy by *the fear of one person.* (Here it is not clear if the sense is *his fear of one person*, or *one person's fear.*)

Test G4

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. The *agreement's signing* took place only yesterday.
2. This *chalk's colour* is blue.
3. I am going to see the *boy's and girl's* mother.
4. Mr. *B.'s brother's dog's* collar came off when I put the chain on.
5. *Mr. B.* and *Mr. A.'s* sons are still small boys.
6. The *birth's record* was made on July 8th.

G5. Word Order

G5a : Special Adverbs

When used in connection with any verb but *be*, the adverbs *almost, quite*, and *never* are regularly put before the verb. With complex tenses, they are put after the first auxiliary. Adverbs of time, such as *generally, frequently, sometimes, regularly*, and *still*, generally have the same position.

Exx : He *almost* had a fall.

The summer in England *never* comes up to one's hopes.

She *frequently* goes without a meal.
I have *sometimes* seen these birds near a river.

G5b : Questions

In questions, such adverbs come after the subject.

Exx : Do you *sometimes* make more than one copy of your work ?

Have you *quite* given up that idea ?

G5c : Negative Statements

In negative statements with an auxiliary, the position of such adverbs is dependent on the sense. If what is limited by the adverb is the complete negative statement, the adverb is put before the auxiliary ; if what is limited is only the positive act, the adverb is put before the infinitive or past participle.

Exx : I *frequently* do not say what I have in mind (= It frequently comes about that I do not say what I have in mind).

I do not *frequently* say what I have in mind (= I do not say what I have in mind again and again).

I *still* do not see the ship (= I have not seen it so far and do not see it now).

I do not *still* see the ship (= I did see it, but now I no longer do so).

G5d : 'Only'

Special attention is to be given to the adverb *only*, which may take a number of positions in a sentence, in all of which its effect on the sense is different. The rule for its use is simple : *Only* has to be put straight before the word or part of the sentence limited by it. But because this seems hard for learners to keep in mind, and errors of sense are frequently caused by overlooking it, here are some examples.

Exx : *Only you* see the effect of this condition (= Nobody but you sees . . . .).

You *only see* the effect of this condition (= You see it, but that is all—as against experiencing it fully, or doing something about it, or whatever the maker of the statement has in mind).

You see *only* the *effect* of this condition (= You see the effect, but that is all—as against seeing how it is produced, and so on).

You see the effect *only* of this *condition*, or, of this *condition only* (= You see the effect of this condition but not of any other).

In the last example, as you see, the *only* may be put after the word. This is sometimes done, but only when there is no chance whatever of any error in sense, as in all the other examples there was.

G5e : 'However'

The conjunction *however* is placed after the word, phrase, or clause which it is desired to put forward as against some other (which has been named before or is clear from the sense), or at the start of a complete sentence which is put forward in this way. Take care in using it that its effect is on the right part of the sentence for your purpose.

Exx : He, *however*, did not go (= He, as against some other person or persons who did go).

He did not go, *however* (= though it was possible, or designed, or hoped, and so on, that he would do so).

G5f : 'Not only,' 'Never,' 'Only then'

Take care in using *not only* that it is put before the part of the sentence by which it is needed (see G5d), and that, if *but* comes after it, the two parts of the sentence so joined are parallel in structure. If *not only* is used in relation to a complete statement, it is put before the verb or auxiliary and the subject is put after that, as in questions. The same order is frequently used with *never*, *only then*, *only when* . . . . ., *only after* . . . ., *even worse* . . . , and so on.

Exx : *Not only* is the way long, *but* the night is cold.

Never have I seen such a smash.

Only then (that is, *not till then*) did he let us into the secret.

Even worse is it to make an error and say you have not done so.

Not : In that year, not only the rains *came early*, but they did great damage.

But : In that year, not only *did the rains come early*, but they did great damage.

Not : The ants have *not only got* into the house, but into the cupboard.

But : The ants have *got not only* into the house, but into the cupboard.

G5g : Conditional sentences without 'if'

Conditional sentences in which the condition is not possible, not probable, or no longer possible (see V5d and 5e) may be formed without the help of *if*, by putting the verb or auxiliary before the subject. The rules for tenses are the same as when *if* is used.

Exx : *Had he gone* earlier, he would not have got wet.

Had you any self-respect, you would not put up with such behaviour.[1]

Test G5

Make the necessary changes in order, etc., in these sentences :

1. I did not *almost* see you under that umbrella.
2. He takes all the credit, though he was *only* responsible for about half the work.
3. *He not only went* round the curve at a great rate, but his eyes were not on the road.

[1] It is never necessary to make use of these forms, and only the one given in the first example is very common. But the other is sometimes used, so it is important to be conscious of it.

4. Do you have *generally* a cough ?
5. He is not *sometimes* able to take a breath without pain.
6. John may not have wine. He, *however*, may have some tea.
7. *Had he* any idea that she would be there, he would not have gone.
8. I gave the porter your note, and only then *he let me have* the bags.
9. The air here makes it *generally* hard for me to keep awake.
10. Though your design is interesting, I do not *still* see how such a machine would be of use.
11. The cork was fixed very tightly in the bottle. I got it, *however*, out with the help of a corkscrew.
12. The electric current gets *frequently* cut off.
13. *His digestion is not only poor*, but he gets the wrong sort of food.
14. The company makes *regularly* a distribution of the profits among the workers.
15. My brother has taken his driving test. He, *however*, is not very level-headed, so I am not very happy when he is driving.
16. She got *almost* taken out to sea by the current.
17. I have to take *sometimes* a sleeping powder.
18. In your account, *only* give such details as are necessary.
19. This sort of store does not keep *generally* such things.
20. I have not *still* had any news of my son at the front.

G6. Idiom

Idioms are those fixed word groups, those special ways of putting certain ideas, which, though the sense of words and the rules of grammar may make possible different ways, and may even seem to have little connection with the fixed word groups, are, in fact, the ways regularly used by the English themselves. There is no general guide to idioms. The only way to get a complete knowledge of them is by learning them all separately. But though long experience is needed for this, a number of common idioms may readily be got by heart, and will go a long way in the direction of making your English quite natural. If you are able at the same time to see the line of thought which gave birth to the idiom, it will be a great help. Here are some of the most frequent errors in idiom, grouped under six headings.

G6a: Wrong Preposition

Examples (with the right word in brackets) :

a teacher *in* (*at*) a school
happy *in* (*at*) times
good, bad, expert, *in* (*at*) doing
looking, firing, smiling, *to* (*at*) me
with (*by*) oneself
out (*out of*) the house
go *for* (*on*) a journey
on (*in*) the street
different *to* (*from*)
the question *in* (*under*) discussion
pleased, angry, *at* (*with*) a person
do something *by* (*on*) impulse
be conscious *about* (*of*)
married *with* (*to*) a person
full *with* (*of*)
go *with* (*at*) a rate of
the same *with* (*as*)
kind *in* (*of*) you
this is *equal* (*equal to*) that
far (*from*) the fire
be *tired with* (*of*) someone
the *town* (*of*) *London*

G6b: Wrong Number

Examples (with the right form in brackets) :

We went there *on feet* (*on foot*).
He made it *by hands* (*by hand*).
The tree has *taken roots* (*taken root*).
They were walking *sides by sides* (*side by side*).
He has had no medical *experiences* (*experience*).
These books are *fictions* (*fiction*).
I am in no *doubts* about what to do (*doubt*).
The business has made *good profits* (*a good profit*).
but
The *profit* of the business is good (*profits* are).

G6c: Wrong Article

Examples ( ) is a sign that *the* or *a* is not needed.
be put *in* (*the*) *prison*, go *to* (*the*) *prison*, for a year
go somewhere *by* (*the*) *land*, *by* (*the*) *sea*, *by* (*the*) *water*, *by* (*the*) *air*, *by* (*a*) *train*, and so on
go *to* (*the*) *sleep*, *to* (*the*) *sea* (as a sailor), *to* (*the*) *school* (as a learner), *to* (*the*) *church* on Sunday, *to* (*the*) *bed* at night
be *at* (*the*) *work*, *at* (*the*) *play* (playing), *at* (*the*) *rest*,
the country is *at* (*the*) *war*
do something *at* (*the*) *night*
in (*the*) *belief* that
in (*the*) *memory of* the dead
make (*the*) *love* to someone
by (*the*) *chance*
No smoking, *by* (*the*) *order*
for (*the*) *fear of* making an error
Note : *The* is necessary in the idiom *be of the opinion that.*

G6d: Wrong Verb

Examples (with right word in brackets):

take (*make*, or *come to*) a decision
make (*get into*, *have*) an argument, fight, talk, discussion, with someone
the event *had* (*took*) place
make (*give*) a smile, laugh, cough, kick, push, and so on
make (*give* or *put forward*) an argument against something

say (*make*) a statement
say (*put*) a question
say (*give*) an account, story
make (*give*) a public talk

G6e: Wrong Order

Wrong	Right
a girl *old five years*	a girl *five years old*
be *early, late, an hour*	be *an hour early, late*
be long, high, wide thick, tall, away, six feet	be *six feet long, high, wide, thick, tall, away*

G6f: Infinitive and Gerund

Examples (with right form in brackets):
with a *view to do* (*doing*)
be looking forward to *do* (*doing*)
with the purpose *to do* (*of doing*)
be ready *for doing* (*to do*)
have an impulse, tendency, *of doing* (*to do*)
have a love *to do* (*of doing*)
have an idea *to do* (*of doing*)
be interested *to do* (*in doing*)
have the effect *to do* (*of doing*)
undertake *doing* (*to do*)

Exercise G6

Make the necessary changes in these sentences:

1. The distance is less *by the sea* than *by the land*.
2. He does not go into society *for the fear of getting* into debt.
3. The boy *made a cry of fear* when he saw the snake.
4. Columbus *went for his journey* of discovery in 1492.
5. It is time for little girls *to go to the bed*.
6. The man who put the boards across the railway line has been *sent to the prison* for ten years.
7. It was only *by the chance* that discovery of them was made in time to keep the train from destruction.
8. I am *looking forward to have* a good time when I go to see my sister.
9. She is one of the teachers *in a school* in Bombay.
10. When she is not *at the work*, the two of us will go out *on horsebacks*.
11. When I come back I will *say an account* of all I have seen to my mother and father.
12. My brother is *old twenty-five years* and *tall five feet ten inches*.
13. He sometimes *makes talks* at political meetings.
14. Will you *undertake letting* me have the money?
15. I am *of opinion* that you have no *desire of doing so*.
16. If you have any *questions to say* to me about the profit of the business, please do so.
17. I am quite *ready for giving* you all the details.
18. That young sailor has a *tendency of making friends* with every girl he comes across.
19. He has no *idea to get married* with any of them.
20. He *went to the sea* when he was *old sixteen years*.
21. A sailor is *at the sea* for months without female society.
22. That has the *effect to give him* a love of it when he *comes on the land*.
23. Some men *made an argument* on the street last night, and in the end a fight *had place*.
24. At last the police came, but they were *late fifteen minutes* and it was all over.

G7. Other Points

G7a: One Word for Two Purposes

Do not make use of any word or verb form for two purposes in the same sentence, if for one of these purposes grammar, sense or idiom makes necessary a different word or form.

Not: The Nationalists *have not been*, and have no desire *to take*, any part in the present Government.
But: The Nationalists *have not been taking*, and have no desire *to take*, any part in the present Government.
Not: Acting *in this belief* and *his desire*, I gave my name to the Committee.
But: Acting *in this belief* and *at his desire*, I gave my name to the Committee.
Not: He is *as noted*, if not more noted, *than* any other man in the country.
But: He is *as noted as*, if not more noted *than*, any other man in the country.

G7b: Indirect Statement[1]

In putting something into Indirect Statement, pronouns used of the person making the statement have to be put in the third person; time words, such as *now*, have to be changed in agreement with any change of tense; and *here* may have to be changed to *there*, *this* to *that*, *come* to *go*, and so on. Only when time words and so on are used of some time, place, or thing still present to the person giving the account of what has been said, is no change necessary.

Direct: "*I am going* to have a look at *my* garden," said John.
Indirect: John said *he was going* to have a look at *his* garden.
Direct: "They *will make* me an offer *here*, in Rome, *to-day*," said Caesar.
Indirect: Caesar said they *would make* him an offer *there*, in Rome, *that day*.
Direct: "*I will come* to see you to-morrow, when *I am free*," said Mrs. X.
Indirect: Mrs. X said *she would come* to see *me* (or *us*) to-morrow, when she *was free* (said the same day by the person to whom the statement was made).

or

Mrs. X said *she would go* to see *them* (or *her*, or *him*) to-morrow, when *she was free* (said the same day by a third person).

[1] For tenses of verbs in Indirect Statement see V6e.

G7c : 'Than' Clauses

Take care that in clauses of comparison starting with *than* the structure is such as to keep clear the comparison with the statement of the chief clause.

Not : The grass is greener in Ireland than *any other country has.*

But : The grass is greener in Ireland than (*it is*) *in any other country.*

or

Ireland *has* greener grass than any other country (*has*).

G7d : 'Some' and 'Any'

In all negative statements, and in all questions which may be taken as interested in "any amount, *however small*," that is, in which the sense of comparison between some amount and no amount is strong, *any* is used, not *some*, for "an amount or number of."

Not : You did not put *some* salt in the soup.
But : You did not put *any* salt in the soup.

Not : I am looking for a stamp. Have you *some* ?
But : I am looking for a stamp. Have you *any* ?

but

Not : Please, may I have *any* jelly ?
But : Please, may I have *some* jelly ?

G7e : 'Because' and 'That'

In statements starting with the words "the reason is," "the reason why .... is," the clause giving the reason is started with *that*, not with *because*.

Not : The reason the poison had no effect on Mithridates was *because* he had got used to it by degrees.

But : The reason the poison had no effect on Mithridates was *that* he had got used to it by degrees.

G7f : 'Other', 'The Rest'

Take care not to make use of *other*, or *the rest*, after a superlative, when the word or sense needed is *all*.

Not : Secunderabad may take first place among *all the other towns* of India.

But : Secunderabad may take first place among *all the towns* of India.

Not : This jewel is the brightest *of all the rest.*
But : This jewel is the brightest *of all.*

Test G7

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. His interest and respect for the working-man *is* clear on every page.
2. The reason the fire is out is *because* you did not put enough coal on it.
3. The servant has not put *some* spoons on the table.
4. The rate of exchange is lower than it has ever been *my experience of it.*
5. He is the fattest of *all the other boys* at the school.
6. He said yesterday he *will take* the boat out *tomorrow* if there *is* no mist, so he has probably gone by now.
7. *Are you going to* or have you had your meal ?
8. The reason why the picture is not clear is *because* the camera was not far enough away.
9. The brown fowl has not given us *some* eggs for a week.
10. That coat is the cheapest of *all the rest.*
11. If you give me *any* chalk, I will put the design on the blackboard.
12. The rhythm of this music is more marked *than they were playing* before.
13. This science has gone forward *more quickly* and as surprisingly as any other.
14. The boy made answer that at *this* time he *has* gone *here* to get the polish for the brass ornaments.
15. I *never have* and never will do such a trick.
16. There is more dust on the road than I have ever seen *it* before.
17. The reason he is so hard to get on with is *because* he has no sense of humour.
18. May I have *any* apples to take back to town ?
19. He will *put questions and trouble* if he sees you.
20. For this reason and *his love of animals* he took the monkey back to his room.

G8. Spelling

G8a : Plurals

All Basic words ending in *y* with a consonant before it have the *y* changed to *ie* before the *s* of the plural. All words ending in *o, s, x, sh,* or *ch* (but *stomach*) make the addition of an *e* before the *s* of the plural.

Exx : babies, potatoes, pushes, taxes, brasses, churches. (*But* boys, stomachs).

G8b : '-er,' '-ing,' '-ed' endings

All Basic words ending in any *one* consonant (but *r* and *y*), with *one* vowel before it, put in the consonant again before the *-er, -ing, -ed* endings. With words ending in *e* the *e* goes out before these endings.

Exx : potted, cutting, dropper, firing.
(*But* bricked, answering, rayed, sailing)

G8c : Adjective endings

All Basic adjectives ending in *y* have the *y* changed to *i* before the *-er, -est,* of the comparative and superlative, and before the *ly-* of the adverb. With adjectives ending in *e* the *e* goes out before *-er* and *-est*. Take note of these special forms :

fatter	fattest	fully
flatter	flattest	feebly
redder	reddest	probably
wetter	wettest	simply
sadder	saddest	automatically
thinner	thinnest	elastically

III. The Sentence

S1. The Sentence as a Unit

S1a: Connection of Ideas

A sentence is a unit of statement. Its purpose is to put forward one complete thought, and it is necessary for every clause or other part of the sentence to have a clear connection with this thought. Do not put in the same sentence ideas which there is no point in uniting. If two ideas have no uniting relation, put them in separate sentences. If they have, make the relation clear by the use of the right conjunction. An idea which is dependent on the chief idea is put in a dependent clause, joined to the chief clause by some subordinating conjunction, conjunctive pronoun, or conjunctive adverb. Two clauses which are equally important may be joined by a co-ordinating conjunction, but only when some addition to the thought is effected by putting them together.

Wrong: The policeman has a family of six *and* he is at the police-station every day from ten to twelve.

Here it is hard to see any possible connection between these two facts but that of being about the policeman. If the size of the policeman's family is given for the purpose of making clear *which* policeman, put it in a relative clause. If not, make two sentences.

Right: The policeman *who has a family of six* is at the police-station every day from ten to twelve.

or

The policeman has a family of six. He is at the police-station every day from ten to twelve.

S1b: Conjunctions

To be able to make the right connection between two clauses, it is necessary to have a clear knowledge of the different conjunctions and their uses:

The **co-ordinating conjunctions** used in Basic are:

and, by which two statements are simply joined

or, by which a selection is offered between two statements

but and **however,** by which one statement is put forward as opposite in tendency to another

so, and so, and the conjunctive phrase, **for that reason,** by which one fact is put forward as the outcome of another

The **subordinating conjunctions** used in Basic are:

that, starting a clause giving the substance of what is said, experienced, and so on

that after **so . . . .,** starting a clause of effect

because, starting a clause of cause

if, starting a clause of condition

though, starting a clause of opposite tendency to what goes before

while, starting a clause saying what was going on in the same stretch of time as the operation in another clause

as and **than,** starting clauses of comparison

In addition, there are the **conjunctive adverbs, when, where, why,** and **how,** starting clauses giving the time, place, reason, and way of some operation; and **after** and **before,** starting clauses of time.

Last we have the relative pronouns **who** and **which,** joining some fact about something to the noun or pronoun naming that thing, and **what** = **that which.**

S1c: Not Complete

All sentences but exclamations have to have in them a finite verb. Do not make the error of writing as a sentence a phrase having in it a verb only in the gerund, participle, or infinitive form. If it is not possible to put such a phrase into the sentence which it is its purpose to make complete, make a new sentence of it.

Wrong: For the purpose of giving young men in the army a better chance of getting on, a law making it necessary for those over 50 to give up certain military positions is being talked of. This *having the effect* of putting a great number of older men out of the army.

It is clearly hard to get this phrase near enough to the "law" with which it has a connection to make a good sentence. So let it be changed to:

Right: For the purpose of giving young men in the army a better chance of getting on, a law making it necessary for those over 50 to give up certain military positions is being talked of. This *would have the effect* of putting a great number of older men out of the army.

S1d: Unequal Parts

And or *but* may be used for joining two chief clauses or two dependent clauses, but never for joining a chief clause and a dependent clause.

Not: Mr. A. put forward the suggestion *that,* though such a law might be of value, *but* it would be better to make the limit 55.

But: Mr. A. put forward the suggestion *that,* though such a law might be of value, *it* would be better to make the limit 55.

Test S1

Make the necessary changes in these sentences:

1. In the fight, two men were wounded and taken to the hospital.
2. The apparatus, which has not been tested, and there seems to be no way of testing it.
3. Every note of the music came clearly to my ears and they said later that it was by Bach.

4. She was overcome by amusement at the boy's bad language, and which was, in my opinion, little to her credit.
5. At the base of the building is a line of verse cut into the stone, and it was put up two thousand years back.
6. Mr. B. said that the Government was keeping a tight grip on necessary foods, and he will give another talk on Monday.
7. The Japanese Government is in no doubt of the serious view of this event which is taken by the Government of Great Britain. The act being clearly against international law.
8. If the glass has a crack in it, but it did not have one when I was looking at it last, I am surprised.
9. The printing is done by a certain process and it is dependent on a chemical reaction.
10. The instrument is made of silver. On which the acid has no effect.
11. The grain will not be cut to-day. The reason being that it is not ready.
12. The land is not very fertile and there is copper in it, so it is of great value.
13. The reason the woman is so poor is that she had no insurance on her house. Everything she had having gone when it was burned down.
14. The button came off, and you did not put a knot at the end of the thread.
15. I have no soap and I am unable to get my hands clean.

S2. Position of Clauses

The rule of position is the same for clauses as for words : *things which go together in thought are to be kept together in words* (or as near together as other rules of sentence structure make possible).

S2a : Adjective

An adjective clause is one which does the work of an adjective in relation to a noun or pronoun in some other clause. The right position for such a clause is as near as possible to this noun or pronoun, the antecedent of the relative pronoun or adverb with which the clause is started. It is most important not to let any other word, which might wrongly be taken for the antecedent, come between. If you have a sentence in which it is not possible to keep to this rule, make a change in the structure of your statement, putting your ideas in some other way.

Not : That yellow *metal* is not gold, *which has such a bright polish*, but brass.

But : That yellow *metal which has such a bright polish* is not gold, but brass.

Not : It is said that such *men* will be requested to give up their positions *as are not in agreement with these views.*

But : It is said that such *men as are not in agreement with these views* will be requested to give up their positions.

S2b : Adverb

An adverb clause does the work of an adverb in relation to a verb, adjective, or adverb in some other clause. Its right position is as near as possible to the word with which it has to do. An adverb clause is joined to another by any of the subordinating conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs, and by clauses starting with *who* or *which* if what is said in them is, in effect, a statement of cause or reason.

Ex : I will give away this cloth, *which is of no use to me*, that is, because it is of no use to me.

Not : He *saw the flames* and went to get a bucket of water *while he was waiting on the landing.*

But : He *saw the flames while he was waiting on the landing*, and went to get a bucket of water.

S2c : Noun

A noun clause does the work of a noun in relation to a word in some other clause. Its right position is, again, as near as possible to the verb, noun, or preposition with which it has to do. Such a clause is joined to another by the conjunction *that*, a conjunctive pronoun, or a conjunctive adverb.

Not : He *saw clearly*, even before he had made the discovery that there were the finger-prints of two persons on the frame of the picture, *what had taken place.*

But : He *saw clearly what had taken place*, even before he had made the discovery that there were the finger-prints of two persons on the frame of the picture.

Test S2

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. The *bread* will not be enough for two meals *which I got in the market this morning.*
2. The glass ornament *got cracked* and is no longer of any value *when it was pushed off the table.*
3. *The fight* was the outcome of an argument in the street, *in which one man had his nose broken.*
4. The men are said to have made an attack on *Mr. B.* with sticks, *who was ploughing at the time.*
5. *It is said* by the writer in his latest book, talking of the fact that bad drains are responsible for much disease, about which there is no question, *that the rules controlling building operations are very necessary.*
6. *My opinion is*, though I am not an authority on education, having had little myself, *that the school at Bangalore is doing very good work.*
7. *A silver box* was given to Mr. B. on his birthday by those working under him, *which had his name on it.*

8. The expansion of the industry *will probably not take place* as quickly as was hoped, though it will certainly do so in time, *if the law does not go through.*
9. He did not *say*, though I was hoping he would do so, *how the insect makes the hole in which it puts its eggs.*
10. A sticky *substance* is produced by this tree *which is used in industry.*

S3. Position of Phrases

Noun, adjective, and adverb phrases, are, like clauses, to be put as near as possible to the word with which they have to do. The commonest error of this sort is in connection with the use of participles and gerunds. It has been noted in V8e and V8g that the relation of a participle or gerund has to be made clear, but at this point we are interested in making the sentence not only clear but smooth and well-balanced. Badly placed phrases, hanging loosely from the end of a sentence, give a feeble and unpleasing effect.

Not : He said that he had *sent the spade back*, on learning that we were looking for it, *by the gardener.*

But : He said that, on learning that we were looking for it, he had *sent the spade back by the gardener.*

Not : *He* was on the point of jumping out of the window when I came in, *overcome by this news.*

But : *Overcome by this news, he* was on the point of jumping out of the window when I came in.

Test S3

Make the necessary changes in these sentences :

1. The man was dressed in a white linen coat and trousers and had a dog with him, with a flower in his buttonhole.
2. He put on the brake so suddenly that the car almost went over on its side on seeing the cart across the road.
3. I am going to the store to get some oranges, but there may not be any, because they are hard to get at this time of year, for our morning meal.
4. A low branch gave him a blow across the face going on horseback through the wood.
5. The paper gives directions, which was handed to him by the postman, what to do if there is an air attack.

S4. Order and Interest

The rule that phrases and clauses are to be put near to the words they have to do with is designed to make sentences as clear as possible. But in good writing it is not enough for a sentence to be clear. It has, in addition, to say what is desired in the way which will have most effect on our minds and feelings ; it has to get our attention at the start and keep it to the end ; it has, in fact, to have force and interest. As a help in giving it these qualities, there is another rule : **Wherever possible put clauses and phrases before the clause or words on which they are dependent.** Naturally, this is possible only with certain sorts of clauses and phrases, and even with those it is not in all conditions the best thing to do.[1] The rule is a good general guide, but it has to be balanced by common sense, a feeling for effect, and an ear for rhythm. It may be said, however, that *if* clauses, *that* clauses in direct statement, and participle phrases may very frequently be put first with good effect.

Feeble : You will go back today, if you have any love for your father.

Better : If you have any love for your father, you will go back today.

Feeble : It seems quite certain that Hungary will do nothing against the desires of Russia.

Better : That Hungary will do nothing against the desires of Russia seems quite certain.

Test S4

Make the necessary changes in these sentences to give them greater effect :

1. He is writing verses, seated on the grass in the shade of a tree.
2. The meat would not have gone bad, if you had put it in the icebox when it came.
3. He went to the police-station, hoping to get help, but it had been burned down.
4. He gave a loud laugh and said something to another Government supporter, on hearing the news.
5. The floor gave way, crushed by the weight of the machine, at the end of five minutes.
6. It is true that sex has nothing to do with brain power, and by most persons unquestioned.
7. He got a grip at last, driving his finger-nails into the earth.
8. The arch is very beautiful, seen against the sky.
9. The slope seemed sharper than it was, covered with snow and ice.
10. Experience has not made the committee any wiser, as is clear from its present programme.

S5. Loose and Periodic Sentences

There are, from the point of view of structure, two sorts of sentence, loose and periodic. A loose sentence is one which is complete in structure before it comes to an end, that is, in which the chief statement is made first, letting some clause or phrase come last. A periodic sentence is one in which we are kept waiting to the end

[1] For example, the order of events sometimes makes it impossible to put a clause or phrase before the chief clause and so on. *She went out putting on her hat* (that is, *while she was going*) is different in sense from : (*After*) *putting on her hat she went out.*

for the structure and the sense to be complete. In a loose sentence, the full stop might come at one or more points before it does, and the part so cut off before it would still be a sentence. In a periodic sentence it would not be possible to put a full stop anywhere before the end and still make sense. As a general thing, the periodic sentence is looked on as a better form than the loose sentence, for the same reasons as were given in S4 in connection with the placing of clauses and phrases.

S5a: Loose

A loose sentence is not necessarily a bad sentence, but it has a tendency to be so. At worst, it gives an unpleasing and uninteresting effect; it lets down our interest before the end, and seems slow and feeble. At best, it has not as much force as the periodic form. There are, however, times when a loose sentence is the only form possible, and times when it is certainly better for the purpose, giving a better rhythm than the periodic, or a smoother or more straightforward effect.

Bad: The watchman got the idea that the oil was on fire because of a great amount of black smoke coming from the building. *and* he made use of his whistle, *which* had the effect of sending the police running to the place, *but* he had seen his error *and* was covered with shame before they got there.

Good: The sea came slowly up on the yellow sand, gold in the early sunlight, *and* stretching away, as it seemed, to the ends of the earth.

S5b: Periodic

The value of the periodic sentence, as will be clear from what has been said, is that it gives greater force and interest to a statement. It keeps us looking forward, with never a thought of stopping, till its work is done. Whenever possible, it is best to make use of this form, but never do so at the price of twisting your sentence into an unnatural design, or of making it less clear.

Good: A great amount of black smoke coming from the building gave the watchman the idea that the oil was on fire. Blowing his whistle, he sent the police running to the place. Before they got there, however, he had seen his error and was covered with shame.

Bad: Slowly up on the yellow sand, gold in the early sunlight, and stretching away, as it seemed, to the ends of the earth, the sea came.

Test S5

Put these sentences into periodic form, making one sentence into two where necessary:

1. She took the boy by the hand and went into the country with a sad heart.
2. The fisherman put another worm on the hook after pulling in his line, the fish having got away after a short fight.
3. The prisoner took the cup, and at the same time gave me an angry look, and then sent the liquid straight into my face with a quick motion of his hand.

Put these periodic sentences into loose form:

4. Though the tail feathers of the bird are red, those on its throat are grey mixed with brown.
5. That the spring of the watch is broken, because turning the key has no effect, is my opinion.
6. By a little wind, which made a soft sound in the trees, the water was broken into dancing waves.

S6. Balance

S6a: Opposite

In using two clauses or phrases putting forward two ideas as against or opposite to one another, make their structure the same whenever possible. Such clauses or phrases are headed by correlative conjunctions or correlative phrases. The parts joined by such conjunctions or phrases *have* to have the same structure, in the sense that they have to be words doing the same work or clauses of the same sort (see note on *not only . . . but*, G5f). But, if it is possible, go further, and make them not only parallel in general structure but of the same form in detail (using the same prepositions in the same relation, and so on). Balance of form and sound is pleasing in itself, and of great value in making the comparison clearer and stronger.

The correlative conjunctions used in Basic are: *not only . . . . . but*; *not . . . . but*; *if . . . then*; *as . . . . so.*

Some correlative phrases used in Basic are: *In part . . . in part*; *in the first place . . . . . in the second place*; *here . . . . there*; *on the one hand . . . . on the other hand.*

Poor: These examples are of use *not only as a help* to the memory *but to make* the rules clearer.

Better: These examples are of use *not only as a help* to the memory *but as a way of making* the rules clearer.

Poor: The writer's power is seen *not so much in* his pictures of events, *but because* his men and women are living beings to us.

Better: The writer's power is seen *not so much in* his pictures of events *as in the fact* that his men and women are living beings to us.

S6b: Building

In using two or more clauses or phrases one after the other, for building up an effect, it gives force to make their structure the same, if it is possible to do this without sounding unnatural. If they are not all equally important, take care to put the least important first, and the most important last.

Poor : These poor men and women are in the saddest possible condition ; *hope has gone* from them, *they have* no friends, and *they are* without money.

Better : These poor men and women are in the saddest possible condition ; *they have* no money, *they have* no friends, and *they have* no hope.

S6c : Unnecessary Change

In sentences formed of one or more co-ordinate clauses, do not put their verbs in different tenses or voices unnecessarily.

Poor : *She has* a very good voice, and *three songs were given* by her, with which everyone was greatly pleased.

Better : *She has* a very good voice, and *gave* three songs, with which everyone was greatly pleased.

Poor : He *has sent* me a letter but he *gave* me no news of his relations.

Better : He *has sent* me a letter, but *has given* me no news of his relations.

or

He *sent* me a letter, *but gave* me no news of his relations.

Test S6

Make the necessary changes in these sentences to give them greater effect :

1. It was not because the quality of the leather was poor, but because of the bag's not being well made, that I sent it back.
2. On the one hand, fear kept pulling her back, on the other hand, the effect of her love was to keep pushing her on.
3. He has done good work in the past, but his work is not good now, though it may be good again in the future.
4. You were not wise to do that ; in addition, it was not necessary for you to do it. And it was not right.
5. I was not so much wounded by his behaviour as it was a surprise to me.
6. He went to bed in part because he was tired, in part having no desire to be seen.
7. To have no interest in such questions is unnatural, but giving overmuch thought to them is a waste of time.
8. It is said that he has done much good among the poor, and that all his money was given away by him.

S7. Long and Short Sentences

S7a : Overlong

It has been pointed out earlier that it is wrong to put in one sentence, loosely joined by *and*, two separate ideas which have no special connection. Even worse is it to put a number of ideas together in this way. There is less danger of making a periodic sentence overlong, but when this is done the effect is equally bad. Never make a sentence of any sort so long that the attention gets tired before the end, or that a second reading is necessary to see clearly the complex relation of its parts. Do not make a clause of what it is possible to say in a word or phrase.

Poor : This invention has been of great value in a number of different branches of industry, all of which are important, the chief of these being the iron industry, and further, not only industry, but science itself, would be at a loss without it.

Better : This invention has been of great value in a number of important branches of industry, chief among which is the iron industry. Further, not only industry, but science itself, would be at a loss without it.

Poor : Crushed by his bitter experiences, and feeling that every man's hand was against him, when he saw her coming, though she had never been anything but kind to him, and it was a foolish and cruel thing to do, he sent the servant to the door to say he was out.

Better : Crushed by his bitter experiences, and feeling that every man's hand was against him, when he saw her coming, he sent the servant to the door to say he was out. She had never been anything but kind to him, and it was a foolish and cruel thing to do.

S7b : Overshort

There is no such thing as an overshort sentence. A sentence may have only one word in it, and still be a good sentence in the right place. But there is such a thing as overdoing the use of short sentences. A broken and unpleasing effect is produced by a number of short sentences one after the other, and if they are used to give separately ideas which are, in fact, parts of the same complete thought, there is a loss not only in rhythm, but in sense. In talking or writing, some organization of our thoughts is necessary ; it is our business to make the connections between them as clear as we are able to do, by using the words designed for this purpose. Not to make use of conjunctions for uniting ideas which rightly go together is almost as bad as to make ideas which have no connection with one another into long sentences whose parts are loosely joined together by the conjunction *and*.

Poor : The material was ordered. It did not come. She is unable to make the skirt. She was hoping to go out in it tomorrow.

Better : The material which was ordered did not come, so she is unable to make the skirt which she was hoping to go out in tomorrow.

Test S7

Get these sentences broken up or put together to make better sentences :

1. The meeting took place yesterday. It did no business. There were not enough persons present.
2. The boy went after the ball which was rolling down the slope and sent it to his brother, but his brother was not ready and it went past him.
3. He has a blue band on his arm. That is a sign. He is one of the special firemen. They go round helping to put out fires started by air attacks.
4. I have some small flags on pins representative of the two armies, and I get them fixed in the map, marking the places where fighting is going on, and when one side or the other is pushed back, I make a change in the position of the flags and in this way am able to see clearly what takes place from day to day.
5. The boy with the basket on his arm gave the bell another push, and no one came, and he went on waiting for five more minutes, and then he went away, whistling.

S8. Force

Much of what we have been saying about sentence structure up to this point, though designed chiefly as a help in putting things clearly, has at the same time been giving an idea of how to make statements interesting and to give them force. There are, in addition, a number of special ways of giving force to special words, which it is well to have a knowledge of.

S8a: Strong Positions

The strongest position in a sentence is the end. For this reason it is a good thing to keep important words for this position (as in the periodic sentence), and a bad thing to put a small, and, in comparison, unimportant word (such as a preposition) or phrase (such as a parenthesis) there. The first part of a sentence is only a little less important than the last, and so it may, as we have seen, be used to get attention for details, such as adjective or adverb clauses and phrases, which in any other position might get overlooked. The middle part of a sentence is the least strong. In normal order the verb generally has this place, because it is such an important word that there is no danger of its being overlooked, though, as in the periodic sentence again, the sentence may be made even stronger by putting the verb at the end. The normal order of the chief parts of a sentence is subject-verb-object, but we have had a number of examples of how this order may be changed for the purpose of making the sense clearer. Take a look at these examples again, and you will see that not only is the sense made clearer, but the word or phrase put into one of the strong positions is given greater weight.

Make a comparison between :

Mary made this tablecloth.
and
This tablecloth was made by Mary.

The boy went slowly up to the goat.
and
Slowly the boy went up to the goat.

S8b: Change of Normal Order

Any word placed out of its normal order, even if not moved to a stronger position in the sentence, is, by this fact, given special force. That is why adverbs and adverbial phrases have greater effect when put first, though the normal position of most of them is the strongest in the sentence. In addition to the regular changes of order noted earlier, there are a number of less common ones. These are to be used only by the expert, because they are all limited to certain words, and some of them are almost never used in everyday prose.

Direct Object-Subject-Verb :

A worse error I never saw.
Gold he gave me, and silver.

Indirect Object-Subject-Verb :

To me he gave all he had.

Direct Object-Verb-Subject :

Much love had this man for his country.

Indirect Object-Verb-Subject :

To him only will I give it.

Complement-Verb-Subject :

Dark was the night.
Great is his power.

Adverb-Verb-Subject :

In this way was started a great argument.[1]

An adjective which normally comes before the noun may be placed after it to give greater force.[2] *Have you ever seen a cow angry*? *Anna married is not the Anna she was.* (The first of these forms may safely be used with the verb *see*.)

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[1] This order, as we have seen, is frequently used with the negative adverbs, *never* and *not only*. See G5f.

[2] At this stage the learner will have the knowledge that when an adjective has need of a preposition for completing its sense, or is modified in any way, it is regularly put after the noun.

Examples : A man able to do that, the boy waiting at the door, a line parallel to this one, hair black as night, an event as strange as fiction, shoes like mine.

S8c: It is

The phrases *it is* and *it was* are frequently used to give special force to a word or phrase. If the word is the subject or object of a statement, the statement then has to be put in the form of a relative clause. If that which is pointed out by *it is* is an adverb or a phrase, the statement has to be put in the form of a noun clause starting with that.

Make a comparison between :

I saw the secretary yesterday.
and
It was the secretary I saw yesterday.

I am doing this in your interests.
and
It is in your interests that I am doing this.

Take note that this form is only to be used when the word or phrase is made strong for the purpose of ruling out any idea of its negative or opposite. (*It was the secretary*—not any other person—I saw.)[1]

Test S8

Make changes in these sentences to give more force to the word or words in sloping print :

1. The *size* of the stone is not important.
2. The rat came out of its hole *when all was quiet.*
3. She saw *a cow* in the field.
4. It is not *possible* for you to go now.
5. I am not interested in his *religion.*
6. He was ready to take my offer *at that time.*
7. I *never* said such a foolish thing.
8. *All of them* did not do the work equally well.
9. His muscles are strong enough, but his *mind* is feeble.
10. We are going to have thunder *some time today.*

S9. Words Used More Than Once

S9a: By Chance

To make use in the same sentence, or even in sentences very near together, of the same word[2] or phrase more than once, or of two words whose sound is very like, is bad, if it is not done in the ways and for the purposes noted in S9b-e.

Exx : Take care not to make use of the same word again for a different *purpose* on *purpose.*
She was *looking* at the dog with a disgusted *look.*

[1] Keep in mind when using a pronoun after *it is* that such a pronoun is the complement of the verb, not the object, and has to be in the subjective case. (*It was I who said that.*)

[2] Not, naturally, an article or preposition, or part of the verb *be,* though even these small words may have an unpleasing effect if they come in again and again near together.

S9b: To Give Force

The same word may be used over again in relation to the same thing to give force.

Exx : That statement is *false, false* as the man who made it.
Words, words, words, I am tired of hearing them!
I will *never* give in, *never* !
Don't let the *fly* get onto the cheese ; *flies* are dirty insects.
I said the door would be *open,* and *open* it is.

S9c: To Make Clear

A subject or auxiliary which goes with two verbs at some distance from one another is frequently put in again if there is any danger that, if it is not put in, the sentence will not be clear.

Exx : *She* is with her sister, who is in London, and *she* will not be back till tonight.
The shirt *had been* taken by the servant, when it was still good enough to be used, and *had been* given to the dustman.

The same thing is true of a preposition which goes with two or more objects, a conjunction which goes with two or more clauses, and an auxiliary which goes with two or more infinitives.

Exx: He is looking *for* those who gave help to his family when he was away, and specially *for* his brother. It is said *that* the burning of the house was the work of the owner, *that* the insurance company made the discovery, and *that* the man is now in prison.
He *has* to undertake the care of the boy till he is old enough to go to work, and *has* to send a letter to his mother every week.

S9d: Subject Put in Twice

A noun subject is generally not itself put in again, but a pronoun is used in the second place.

Ex : *Mary* is with her sister, who is in London, and *she* will not be back till tonight.

This is frequently done when the subject is made up of a long list of nouns or phrases. After such a subject the pronoun is, naturally, plural. If it is desired to give special force, in addition to making the sense quite clear, *these, those, such,* or *all* is frequently used.

Exx : Shoes, boots, shirts, socks, *they* were pushed into the bag till it was full to bursting, and still they came.
Music, birds, sunlight, the open country, *these* were his loves.

S9e: 'Than' and 'As'

After the conjunctions *than* and *as* the verb is put in again, or *do* is used in its place, if there is any chance of giving a wrong sense.

Ex : He gives me more trouble than you.

To make this clear, put :

He gives me more trouble than you *do* (or *give*). Or

He gives me more trouble than he *does* (or *gives*) you, in agreement with the sense desired.

S10. Parentheses

A parenthesis is a word, clause, or sentence which has no connection with the grammar of the sentence into which it is put, but is simply an observation made, as we say, by the way. "As we say," in the sentence before this, is an example of a parenthesis. A parenthesis such as this, which is used for pointing out a special word or group of words, frequently comes before it. Other sorts of parenthesis generally come after the word or words which give the suggestion for the observation. In using a parenthesis take care to put it near to the right word, but, at the same time, not to let it have the effect of separating the sentence in the wrong place. Never make use of long parentheses.

Poor : The attempt has been (*and I may say that it was not my idea, and that I have never had much hope of it coming to anything, though that has not kept me from giving the committee all the help in my power*) made to give these small boys and girls training in self-government—*a purpose with which I am in complete agreement*—by making them responsible to no one but themselves.

Better : The attempt has been made to give these small boys and girls training in self-government—*a purpose with which I am in complete agreement*—by making them responsible to no one but themselves. I may say that this was not my idea, and that I have never had much hope of its coming to anything, though that has not kept me from giving the committee all the help in my power.

General Test S1-10

Make the necessary changes in these sentences to put them right or give them greater effect :

1. The two dogs went rolling over and over, attempting to get one another by the throat, and the fight was only ended by someone's sending a bucket of water over them, and even then the mouth of one of the dogs had to be forced open to make him let go.
2. One dog had a bone. The other made an attempt to go off with it. That was the cause of the trouble. A man who was watching said so.
3. It was a white dog which had a rough coat, which had the bone, and its leg was broken in the fight.
4. Britain is as united as ever before in her history at the present time.
5. Putting the parcel under his arm, he took it from the drawer.
6. The range of his reading is very wide but he is not interested in fiction, as we may see from the books in his library.
7. The trouble was not only that his matches had got wet, but the tin kettle having a hole in it.
8. Get the wood smooth with the plane first, putting in screws when you put it together to make the chest, not nails, as a joiner would do.
9. The sailing-boat with the square red sail made a journey which made a record last week.
10. Lead pipes are generally used for water-pipes, brass being the best material for this purpose, but it is very dear.
11. To be dependent on another is not a happy position for one's living.
12. Keep your chest out and your chin up, and with your eyes looking straight forward, to have a military air.
13. In addition to not being free, the existence of these men is hard in other ways, though that is their chief trouble.
14. The girl was looking very beautiful, being dressed in a white silk dress and having a thin gold chain round her neck.
15. She did not send me as much news as you.
16. He put his foot on a loose stone when coming down the mountain and almost had a fall yesterday.
17. He got a grip on the branch of a tree, keeping his balance in this way, and he would probably have gone rolling all the way down if he had not done so.
18. Last winter from the top of a high wall, landing with a twisted arm and all the skin rubbed off my knees, I had a bad fall.
19. For days my nerves were not under control and the smallest sound gave me a shock, after that experience.
20. Only after a long rest in bed I became my normal self.
21. My left arm was twisted, not my right, in the fall.
22. Not only it was twisted, but cut, having to have stitches put in it because it was so badly cut.
23. Put a fork into the potatoes if they are boiling, to see if they are cooked.
24. Before our eyes are the rice fields stretching away to the sea on the one hand, and a range of mountains on the other.
25. Parallel with the railway a road goes, shaded with trees.
26. The river bed is dry, in the winter the water being quite deep, at this time of year.
27. She did very well in the school play, and by that was given the idea of going on the stage.
28. She makes answer that she has no fear of hard work, to the argument that it will be very hard work at the start.
29. Clear eyes, white teeth, a sweet smile, small feet, a way of moving beautifully are not by themselves enough to give a woman a name for great acting.

IV. Punctuation

Punctuation, or the art of using stops in writing, is very important. It has two purposes : to make the reading of a page of prose less hard on the eyes by marking the division between sentences, and to make the sense of what is said in a sentence quite clear. It is possible to give a completely wrong sense by making use of the wrong stops, or putting them in the wrong places.

In theory, a punctuation mark is needed wherever a person talking would naturally make a short stop. This is quite a good guide as far as it goes, but it sometimes lets one down, and it gives no light on the use of the different sorts of stop. There are a number of schools of thought on the right use of colons, semi-colons, dashes, quotation marks, and so on, for special purposes ; but good prose may be produced without giving any attention to these questions of opinion, and the rules given here are only those on which there is general agreement. The tendency of present-day writers is to make use of stops much less frequently than the writers of the past—by whom they were sometimes used not as instruments, but as ornaments—and the one general direction we have to give is : Put in no more stops than are in fact necessary, but be certain of their uses and where they will be of help.

P1 : The Different Stops

Here are the different stops and other marks used in writing, with their names :

Full stop	.
Question-mark	?
Exclamation-mark	!
Comma	,
Semi-colon	;
Colon	:
Brackets, round	(. . . .)
Brackets, square	[. . . .]
Dash	—
Quotation marks, double	" . . . "
Quotation marks, single	' . . . '
Hyphen	-
Apostrophe	'

P2 : The Separating of Sentences

Sentences are marked off from one another by the full stop, the question-mark, or the exclamation-mark. The names of the last two make clear with what sort of sentences they are used. The full stop is put at the end of all other sentences.

Exx : How interesting it was !
How interesting was it ?
How interesting it was, he did not say.

Test P2

Make the necessary changes in the punctuation of these sentences :

1. What I have to say to you is private ?
2. How loud the music is.
3. Not a ray of light is to be seen from any of the windows !
4. Had she come at the right time, she would have had no trouble ?
5. Who is going to take his place when he is gone.

P3. The Comma

The comma is representative of the shortest stop in the sense. It is the most used of all stops, and the one most frequently put where it is not needed.

P3a : Between Co-ordinate Clauses

A comma is used after the first co-ordinate clause of a sentence, before *and*, *but*, or *or* :—

(a) if the two clauses so joined are very long ;
(b) if their subjects are different.

Poor : His feeling about this is very strong and it will not be surprising if he does something violent.

Right : His feeling about this is very strong, and it will not be surprising if he does something violent.

P3b : Co-ordinate Clauses Without Conjunction

A comma is generally put between co-ordinate clauses not joined by a conjunction, if they are not very long.

Poor : Caesar came he saw he overcame.

Right : Caesar came, he saw, he overcame.

P3c : Words of the Same Part of Speech

A comma is put between two or more words of the same part of speech coming after one another without a conjunction, such as words in a list, or adjectives qualifying the same noun.

Exx : What is needed is a short, solid, brass rod.
I have put the plates, the cups, and the knives on the tray.
He says what he has to say simply, clearly, and well.
By kicking, twisting, and biting, the boy got the cord off his hands and feet.

P3d : A Number of Phrases

A comma is put between two or more phrases, such as those formed of two words joined by a co-ordinating conjunction, put one after the other.

Ex : They were all made to do work in the fields, male and female, old and young, well or ill.

P3e: Adverb Phrases and Clauses

Adverb clauses are regularly marked off from the rest of the sentence by a comma (two commas if they come in the middle). The rule is less fixed for adverb phrases, but if they are long, or if they come first in a sentence, they are generally marked off.

Poor : I am not happy about your doing this because it seems to me unwise.
Right : I am not happy about your doing this, because it seems to me unwise.
Poor : After all this it is not surprising that the baby is not healthy.
Right : After all this, it is not surprising that the baby is not healthy.

P3f: Direct Statement

A comma is put after such verbs as *say* before a bit of Direct Statement if it is not very long, or after the Direct Statement if it comes first. The rule is the same for thoughts, questions, and so on, and for statements giving the substance of something said but not in the very words used. These are given the form of Direct Statement and started with a capital letter, but not put between quotation marks.

Exx : He said, "Come to me."
Her answer was, "I have no fear."
All I have to say to you is, Do your best.
The question is, What are we going to do now.

P3g: In Place of Verb

Sometimes in a second clause using the same verb as the one before it, the verb is not put in again, and its place is marked by a comma.

Ex : He is in America, she, in India.

P3h: With the Vocative

In saying a person's name to him, when talking to him, the name has a comma after or before it if it comes at the start or end of a sentence, and is marked off by two commas if it comes in the middle.

Exx : Mr. Secretary, may I put a question?
Here is your comb, Mary.
You will have the horse running away, John, if you do not put that whip down.

P3i: Adjective Clauses

Clauses starting with a relative pronoun or adjective, if they simply give some detail about the thing named by a noun, and are not necessary to the sense, have a comma before them, or before and after them if they come in the middle of the sentence.

Exx : The girl's father, *who has been ill*, is not here.
Her blue hat, *which has a feather on it*, is more beautiful than this one.

P3j: Participle Phrases

These, however, are not to be marked off when necessary to the sense of what is qualified.

Exx : Making a complete turn in the air, the boy went into the water feet first.
He went out of the room, overcome by his feelings.
But *not*
He is building his new house with the bricks, taken from the old one.

P3k: Wrong Uses

It is wrong to put a comma :—

(i) between a subject and its verb, or a verb and its object, if no clauses or phrases cut off by commas come between ;

Wrong : The Government of Britain, has its hands full at the present.
You have not given me, a receipt.

(ii) between an adjective and the noun coming straight after it ;

Wrong : She put a soft, cushion under her head.

(iii) between two words joined by *and*, at any time but when they come at the end of a list ;

Wrong : The bulbs, and seeds, are ready to be put in the pots.

(iv) before an adjective clause when it is necessary to the sense of the noun ;

Wrong : This is not the basket, I put the eggs in.

(v) before adverbs, or short adjective and adverb phrases not needing special force ;

Wrong : He went, slowly, away.
His coat is hanging, on the hook.
Keep the oven door shut, for five minutes.

(vi) between two co-ordinate clauses joined by *and* or *but* when the subject of the second is the same as that of the first, and is not put in ;

Wrong : She took the needle, and got it threaded.

(vii) before the name of anything in quotation marks, if it is not in apposition.

Wrong : The name of the book is, "Gone With The Wind." (*But*: Its name, "Gone With the Wind," has become a common saying.)

Test P3

Put commas in the right places in these sentences :

1. Wax is made by bees but not the sort of wax used for wax-lights.
2. The net is pulled into the boat full of fish and then comes the business of taking out their insides.
3. For this purpose a knife with a sharp blade is necessary because the fish has to be cut open down the middle.

4. Hour after hour day after day week after week she went on hoping for news of her son.
5. I did it father said George looking very unhappy.
6. There were nuts oranges bread and cheese in the basket.
7. In this disease the skin is covered with small round red marks.
8. The boy came slowly forward rubbing his sticky hands on his trousers.
9. You bad boy you have been taking the jelly again said his mother.
10. The plant has long narrow pointed leaves in twos opposite one another all the way up the stem.

P4. Between Commas

In addition to the words and phrases named in P3 certain others are regularly marked off from the rest of the sentence by two commas, one at the start and one at the end.

P4a: Words and Phrases in Apposition

Exx: The hospital, *the building opposite the station*, has been burned down.
It is X, *the only person who has any knowledge of what took place*, who says that all the men are dead.

P4b: Direct Statement

Commas are put before and after Direct Statement in the middle of a sentence, or words put in by the person talking in the middle of a Direct Statement.

Exx: He was starting to say, "We now come to the prose of Milton," when he was overcome by a violent sneeze.
"Take the list," she said, "and make a note of what is needed."

P4c: Parentheses

Qualifying infinitive phrases, or other additions not necessary to the sense, which, though not long enough or strong enough to go between brackets or dashes, are in fact parentheses, are put between commas.

Ex: It is not, if I may say so, your business what I do.

Test P4

Put commas in the right places in these sentences:

1. "It is the middle of the month now" he said "there will not be a new moon for two weeks."
2. Mr. B. our representative in India will be pleased to come to see you at any time.
3. I have a feeling though possibly it is foolish of me to say so that thet man is not what he seems.
4. His words were "I will send for the police" if my memory is not in error.

P5. Semi-colon

The semi-colon is representative of a longer stop than the comma, so it is used:

(a) when the need to take breath is greater;

(b) when a stronger effect of balance or comparison between two clauses is desired.

It is never wrong to make use of a full stop in place of a semi-colon, but the semi-colon has its value in keeping a connection in view when it is important to do so.

P5a: Long Co-ordinate Clauses

The semi-colon is used in place of the comma between co-ordinate clauses when they are long, or when there is a number of them.

Ex: Do not get the paste very wet; do not put it on the page, but on the back of the picture; if any comes out under the edges, take it off quickly with a dry cloth.

P5b: Clauses of Reason, Effect, or Opposite Tendency

The semi-colon is used before a clause giving the reason or effect of something talked about in a first clause, or between two clauses of opposite tendency if they are not short.

Exx: His Government is based on force; under it no man is free, even in the smallest details of existence.
This is a better way of doing the work; it does not take as much time, and it is cheaper.
I am not going to keep on helping you; if I do you will never be able to do the trick yourself.

Test P5

Put semi-colons in the right places in these sentences:

1. We have seen that the four angles of a square are right angles but this is not true of every form with four equal sides.
2. The lift is automatic all you have to do is give the button a push.
3. I have no belief in the story if I had I would not be here.
4. The monkey has toes like fingers that is why it is able to go from branch to branch so quickly.

P6. Colon

P6a: Direct Statement

The colon is used before Direct Statement after words such as *say*, if what is recorded is quite long.

Ex: In one of the Basic books you will see this statement: "There are more than 1,500 separate languages still in use, and they are as different as the clothing of those who make use of them."

P6b: Before Lists

The colon is used between the start of a list and the words putting it forward, if the list is not very short. In this use, a dash is sometimes put after the colon.

Exx: Here is a list of the sorts of words in English: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, pronoun.
These are the books I have in Basic: *Robinson Crusoe, The Outlook of Science, The Organization of Peace,* and so on.

P6c: Before a Clause Giving Examples

The colon is used before a clause or clauses giving details or examples supporting or making clear what has been said in the clause before.

Ex: The three chief uses of the colon are: before Direct Statement; before lists; and before a clause giving details or examples.

Test P6

Put colons in the right places in these sentences:

1. The stops used in English are the full stop the question-mark the exclamation-mark the comma the semi-colon and the colon.
2. My reasons for saying that the country is not ready for a change are three the reactions of the meeting last night, the outcome of the test of public opinion made by one of the newspapers, and the fact that for the last three months every representative who has got in has been a supporter of the present Government.
3. Please send me, carriage forward 50 tooth-brushes of different sizes, 10 hair-brushes in separate boxes, 25 bath sponges, 20 small combs, and 12 elastic knee supports.
4. In answering Mr. A. the Secretary for War said, in part. It has to be kept in mind that the line marking the limits of a country is not necessarily the best on which to take a position against an attacking army.

P7. Quotation Marks

P7a: Double

Words or sentences in Direct Statement, giving word for word what has been said, or quotations from books and so on, are put between double quotation marks. See examples under P4c and P6a.

P7b: Names

Names of books, plays, works of music, and so on, are put between double quotation marks (in writing, that is; in printed material they are generally put in sloping print).
A name or word which is to be noted as one used by other persons or for some special purpose, or which for any other reason is given special attention *as a word*, is put in quotation marks.

Exx: I went to see "Hamlet" last winter.
The name "Kaiser" comes from the Latin "Caesar." The only word which comes to my mind is "unbalanced," but that is not quite the right word for his condition.

P7c: Single

Anything needing quotation marks in a statement which is itself inside them is put between single quotation marks.

Ex: The actor said, "I have had all the male parts in 'Hamlet,' from Hamlet himself down."

P7d: Before or After

The comma or other stop needed after a Direct Statement or name in double quotation marks is put inside the second quotation mark, if the last sentence between them is not a question or an exclamation. If it is, the question-mark or exclamation-mark goes inside, and any other stop needed at that point, outside.

Exx: In putting the question, "What are you going to do now," we are interested only in your well-being. They came down the road crying, "India for ever!" "Please give me a penny," said the boy.

P7e: Long Quotations

In making a very long quotation, having in it more than one paragraph, double quotation marks are put at the start of every paragraph, but at the end only of the last.

Exx: "If you are going to make yourself clear in Basic English, you will have to say your words as far as possible in the way in which the English say them . . . .
"The learning of the sounds of a new language is generally hard, because we have to get used to hundreds of new tricks . . .
"Now you have to make a start all over again . . . .
"Every language has its special tricks; and if you are unable to do them, you are unable to make use of a language in the right and natural way."

Test P7

Put quotation marks and whatever stops are needed in these sentences:

1. Crying Help Police the woman went running into the house.
2. George did you do this said his father pointing to the tree.
3. The paper says this morning The motion picture named David Copperfield has little of the quality of the book dear to lovers of Dickens.
4. I said His ideas are fixed not mixed.

P8. Apostrophe

P8a : Possessive

The apostrophe is used, before *s* put onto the end of a noun in the singular, or after the *s* of a noun in the plural, as a sign of the possessive case.

Exx : My father's father. Our fathers' fathers.

P8b : Dropped Letters

The apostrophe is put into certain short forms as a sign that letters have been dropped.

Exx : It's (*it is*) raining.
Don't (*do not*) do that.
He won't (*will not*) give me his name.
It isn't (*is not*) raining now.
It wasn't (*was not*) raining yesterday.
You aren't (*are not*) ready.
I'm (*I am*) ready, he's (*he is*) ready, and she's (*she is*) ready.

P8c Plurals

The apostrophe is used before the *s* in forming the plural of letters and numbers (not names of numbers).

Exx : The *a*'s in this sentence are all in the wrong sort of print.
The 1's and 2's are not straight.

P9. Hyphen

P9a : Two Words as One

When two words are used together as the name of one thing, they are frequently joined by a hyphen.

Ex : Machine-gun, laughing-gas, sister-in-law.

P9b : As Adjective

Two words working as an adjective are joined by a hyphen if placed before the noun they modify, but they are not generally so joined if used in the predicate.

Exx : A well-trained dog.
but
The dog is well trained.

P9c : Adverbs

Adverbs ending in *ly* are not generally joined to the other word.

Ex : A badly trained dog.

Test P8 and 9

Put the necessary hyphens and apostrophes in these sentences :

1. The babys mother is troubled because it puts its thumb in its mouth.
2. He has a good for nothing brother who never does any work.
3. She put on Marys new ear rings and went to have a look at herself in the looking glass.
4. I hadnt any desire to see her two daughters needlework, but it would have been hard hearted to say so.
5. A badly acted play isnt very interesting.

P10. Dashes and Brackets

P10a : Dash as Sign of Sudden Change

A dash is frequently used for making a sudden turn of thought, or change in structure, in the middle of a sentence, or as a sign that the sentence is completely broken off.

Ex : If my sisters are safe—but how is it possible ?

P10b : Dash before Afterthought

A dash is frequently used before an addition to a sentence to give the effect of an afterthought.

Exx : He is going to take the boat—if it doesn't go before he gets there.
Very well, I will go with you—that is, as far as the town.

P10c : Dash with Colon

A dash is frequently put after a colon at the start of a long list, or in giving directions and so on. See P6b.

Ex : Directions for use :—Take one teaspoonful after every meal.

P10d : Parentheses

Parentheses, if long, or completely separate from the structure of the sentence, are put between dashes or round brackets. There is no fixed rule as to which is to be used, but it may be said that directions to see a certain page and so on, and other names for the same thing which are simply given in addition, not joined by *or* or in opposition, are generally put between brackets.

Exx : He said—and it is my opinion that he had good reason for saying so—that he had been badly let down by the Government.
She is doing her best (how good that is I am not able to say) to get through the work in time.

P10e : Square Brackets

Square brackets are put round any word or phrase in a bit of Direct Statement which is not part of what was said, but is put in by the person recording it.

Ex : [In his notebook there is the sentence : "The work of a medical man has to do not only with the body, but with the mind."]

P10f : Punctuation and Parentheses

If a comma or other stop would be needed after the part of the sentence before a word or words in brackets, if the brackets were not there, such punctuation is put after the second bracket ; this is not necessary when

dashes are used. The only stops which go before the second bracket or dash of a parenthesis inside a sentence are the question-mark and the exclamation mark, if they are part of the sense of the parenthesis.

Exx : Take a look at the picture (page 10), and you will see the reason for this.
The fact is—who now has any doubt of it ?—that these designs were in Hitler's mind even when he was signing the peace agreement.

Test P10

Put dashes or brackets in these sentences at the right places and whatever other stops are needed :

1. The mass for everyday purposes the weight of a body in water is less than its mass weight in air by an amount equal to the mass weight of the water whose place it takes.
2. What Mr. A. said was " He Mr. B. is not a strong enough man to be at the head of the Government in times like these."
3. I might say but what is the use of saying anything.
4. Miners have to make use of a special sort of light see Picture 6 because the air in a mine we are talking specially of coal mines many become mixed with a gas which undergoes a violent reaction with it if a flame is present.

General Test P1-10

Put the necessary punctuation marks in these sentences, using capital letters where necessary :

1. Our minds are unable to get a grip of this war it is on a greater scale than any other in history.
2. Existence in the Virginia colony was full of fear danger and hard work.
3. The question to be answered first is Who had the best chance of putting poison in the poor woman's coffee.
4. When this picture was taken as you see the camera was not on a level.
5. The sheep in this part of the country have twisted horns and very long wool which is used for making a specially soft sort of cloth.
6. Some will go round by the road others over the fields.
7. No man so common were night attacks by the Red Indians ever went to bed without his gun at his side.
8. It was seen that dear Father M. as he was named by a loving nation had little chance of getting better.
9. He said that two or three buildings not a great number where he came from had had their windows broken by machine gun fire.
10. It is probable that the much talked of agreement on which the hopes of the country are fixed will now never be signed.
11. On page 20 the writer says is the Government of India ready to give all the help in its power in overcoming these divisions of opinion.
12. The new theories of time and space make necessary an adjustment some go even further and say a complete change in our ideas of cause and effect.
13. Why don't you get the thread cut with the scissors in place of biting it possibly with damage to your teeth.
14. How warm it is in here said the girl opening the window.
15. The boat was moving away from the landing stage with the band playing and laughing boys waving to their friends over the rail.
16. There is no trouble so great he said that strong purpose common sense and a belief in the future will not do much to overcome it.
17. The little boy has a blue ball the little girl a red one.
18. My dear you are the only true friend I have.
19. Driving the sheep before him the dog got them through the hole in the railing.
20. I have much to do and it won't be possible for me to get through it all if you keep on talking to me.
21. Have I your word my son that you will not have anything more to do with this man now that you see clearly that he has designs on your property.
22. There is no doubt he said that the writer of An African Farm had first hand knowledge of the country he was writing about.
23. He has been well schooled in self control by living with his well off relations.
24. There are four good arguments against your getting married at the present time you are not old enough you have no money the young woman's father is against you as a son in law and the young woman herself doesn't seem to be very much in love with you.
25. It isn't possible to say that it was a left handed person who gave the man his death blow they are only certain in crime stories.
26. Bitter though it is for the French to have the hated Germans in their country than which no land was ever dearer to its sons there is nothing for them to do at present but put up with their unhappy condition watching and waiting for their chance of driving out their attackers.
27. New inventions in the automobile industry such as we have been hearing about to-day will certainly have the effect of putting a greater number of automobiles on the roads and of increasing the number of road smashes if that is the development of our road system does not keep up with the development of road transport.
28. No undertaking of this sort ever had better organization and much credit is to be given to the man at the head of it Mr. R. who was responsible for working out the details everything was done which it was possible to do nothing which might be of help was overlooked but it is now clear that no thought no care is enough to take men safely through such an attempt if natural forces are against it the outcome is in the end dependent on chance.

PART 6

BASIC BY EXAMPLES: FOR READING AND TRANSLATION

NOTE TO THE LEARNER

To make still clearer the uses of the Basic words you are here given 2,066 more examples, this time in the form of complete statements. All the important normal uses of all the 850 words are again covered, in ABC order. The purpose of these complete statements is to give you a chance of testing your knowledge. First go through all the examples, seeing if you are able to put them into your mother-tongue. Then go over them again and see if you are able to put the vernacular parallels back into English, without looking at the book.

An attempt has been made to make the senses of the words clear from the examples in which they are used. This has not been possible all through, but statements like "My actor-friend is making a *picture* in Hollywood" do not give much room for doubt.

Key

Here are some notes to give you an idea of the order in which the examples are given.

The words in **black** print are examples of root uses.

The words in normal print are examples of special senses when marked by (s), and of expansions when marked by (e). Expansions and special senses of words formed from other words (such as *duster, waiting*) are given in addition.

The words in *sloping* print are examples of uses which are not quite normal and straightforward. Among these, and printed at the end, are examples of words used as different parts of speech (for example, the noun *liquid* used as an adjective).

When a word formed from another word is used in a changed sense, this fact is recorded in an example given in *sloping* print (for example, *booking, readily*).

A

1. Here is **a** list of all the words.
2. Every one is put into *an* example complete in itself.
3. There is frequently one **able** man on a committee.
4. There are tall trees **about** the house.
5. It has about (e) twelve rooms.
6. What is the story about (e) the last owner ?
7. There are more birds *about* in the summer.
8. He gave us an **account** of his journey.
9. Waiter, please give me the account (s) now.
10. This fruit has an **acid** taste.
11. She gave him an acid (e) look.
12. He got *an* **acid** on his clothing.
13. He took the boat **across** the river.
14. If you do a kind **act** you may be rewarded.
15. The fight in the third act (e) was badly done.
16. He is a bad actor (s) though he has a good voice.
17. The new owner made an **addition** to the building.
18. The trick was done by the addition (e) of a card.
19. You made an error in the *addition* of the amounts.
20. A small **adjustment** will put the machine right.
21. I saw an **advertisement** of the house in the paper.
22. His talk will be good advertisement (e) for him.
23. I will do all your advertisement (e) for you.
24. I sent him a letter **after** the meeting.
25. The dog was running *after* the man.
26. If you do not get to sleep **again** you will be tired.
27. He put the steps **against** the wall.
28. The old men were against (e) any change in the law.
29. The owners made an **agreement** with the workers.
30. There is no agreement (e) about what was said.
31. The sepoys were *in agreement* about most things.
32. A little sea **air** will be good for him.
33. That man has an air (e) of authority.
34. He gave away **all** his money.
35. It was *all* he had.
36. She goes out **almost** every night.
37. The letter is somewhere **among** my papers.
38. We have enough money *among* us for a good meal.
39. He has a great **amount** of money.
40. There were signs of **amusement** on his face.
41. All the best places of amusement (e) are now shut.
42. He did it to give some amusement (e) to the boys.
43. She took off her hat **and** her gloves.
44. I will *go and get* a hammer.
45. Make the **angle** greater between AB and BC.
46. He put a seat in the angle (e) of the room.
47. From one angle (e) the question seems simple.

48. It made me **angry** to see him using the whip.
49. What a strange **animal** man is !
50. We saw the animals (e) on the farm.
51. He gave the wrong **answer** to my question.
52. Have a look at the **ant** for an example of industry.
53. We were unable to get **any** help from the books.
54. No facts were given in *any* of them.
55. The school is in need of **apparatus** for P. T.
56. Eve gave Adam an **apple** ; then came trouble.
57. The designs had the **approval** of the authorities.
58. There is only one **arch** supporting the bridge.
59. Rain and sun together make an arch (e) of colour.
60. He was wounded by an archer (e) in the wood.
61. They had an **argument** about the value of science.
62. There is a strong argument (e) for government control of industry.
63. The man was hanging by one **arm** from the rod.
64. His hand was resting on the arm (e) of the seat.
65. The nations are still making *arms* for use in war.
66. The organisation of an **army** is very complex.
67. India has a new army (e) of workers.
68. The rules of Japanese **art** are very complex.
69. We no longer have the art (e) of writing letters.
70. I will go there **as** your representative.
71. The beer is not *as good as* it was before.
72. There are no such things *as* shades of the dead.
73. The cart will be **at** the station for you.
74. They came into the room *at* the same time.
75. I put money into the business *at* his suggestion.
76. He made a violent **attack** against the government.
77. He made an **attempt** to get there by swimming.
78. The boys gave no **attention** to their teacher.
79. Waves are caused by the **attraction** of the moon.
80. The sea-side has little attraction (e) in the winter.
81. She is expert in the attraction (e) of young writers.
82. They have no **authority** to put a tax on silk.
83. We had the help of the authorities (e).
84. He is an authority (e) on old books.
85. A teacher is *in authority* over the boys.
86. There are some *automatic* machines in the station.
87. The baby was **awake** long before we got up.

B

1. A foolish mother's **baby** will be crying all the time.
2. There is a garden at the **back** of the house.
3. He has a bent back (s) like an old man.
4. There is no need to go *back* the same way.
5. It is best to have a *back* seat at the pictures.
6. Green apples are **bad** for the digestion.
7. Only a very bad (s) boy would be cruel to a dog.
8. The meat may *go bad* in the warm weather.
9. She had a leather **bag** for her money.
10. It is hard to keep your **balance** on a rolling ship.
11. The Earth is a **ball** moving in space.
12. The boy sent his ball (s) through the window.
13. They put a leather **band** round the animal's neck.
14. The car was damaged by a band (e) of rough boys.
15. There is a band (e) playing on the maidan.
16. Stone was used for the **base** of the building.
17. There was a hospital at the base (e).
18. Get a **basin** of water quickly.
19. The farms in the river basin (e) are very fertile.
20. I keep a special **basket** for the eggs.
21. After a walk, a **bath** gives great pleasure.
22. To be or not to **be** ; that is the question.
23. You will be (e) better after the operation.
24. There may be strange beings (e) on Mars.
25. There is a **beautiful** view from the window.
26. He put on his coat **because** the wind was cold.
27. Put the net over the **bed** before you go to sleep.
28. The stones in the river bed (e) are smooth.
29. In the garden there is a bed (e) full of blue flowers.
30. All this new bedding (e) is quite clean.
31. There is yellow dust on the **bee** from the flowers.
32. He had all the papers **before** him on the table.
33. I will go *before* the rain comes.
34. I will take poison *before* I will say anything.
35. The man's **behaviour** was quiet and normal.
36. We were surprised at his **belief** in himself.
37. In the opinion of the Church belief (s) is necessary for well-being.
38. There are some strange beliefs (e) on that island.
39. It is my belief (e) that he is a bad man.
40. Hearing the **bell** the servant went to the door.
41. The wheel got **bent** in the smash.
42. There was not one **berry** on that plant last year.
43. There is a road **between** the river and the farm.
44. They did nothing *between* meals.
45. There was a fight *between* the two dogs.
46. They had only one bone *between* them.
47. The feathers of the male **bird** are brighter than the female's.
48. At the time of his **birth** his mother was quite young.
49. Not all women of good birth (s) have good looks.
50. Friends, we are present at the birth (e) of a new idea !
51. All the words are printed on a **bit** of paper.
52. The tooth got worse with every **bite** he gave.
53. He took a small bite (e) of the cake.
54. If you get a snake-bite (e) take care !
55. The powder has a **bitter** taste.
56. She gave him a bitter (e) look.

57. She put on a **black** dress after his death.
58. Her hair is a deeper *black* than her dress.
59. The knife has a small **blade** for pencils.
60. With one blow of his blade (s) he took off the man's head.
61. There was a drop of **blood** on his arm.
62. He gave the nail a **blow** with a hammer.
63. There was a sudden blow (e) of wind.
64. His death was a great blow (e) to all his friends.
65. The sky is **blue** in summer.
66. I have no *blue* in my paint-box.
67. The money was under a **board** in the floor.
68. The advertisement was on a board (s) in the street.
69. The hole in the **boat** is letting in water.
70. All the animal's **body** is covered with hair.
71. A man's body (s) was seen in the river.
72. He has a long body (e) and short legs.
73. The sun is a fixed body (e) in relation to the earth.
74. When the water is **boiling** we will have tea.
75. There is a crack in the boiler (s) of the engine.
76. Linen is washed by *boiling* it in water.
77. A broken **bone** gives much pain.
78. This comb is made of bone (e) from some animal.
79. I got the **book** from the library.
80 They are *booking* places on the train.
81. The right **boot** has a nail in it.
82. We will have a **bottle** of beer.
83. She had a **box** full of clothing.
84. They have taken a box (e) for the play.
85. We sent the **boy** to school.
86. The structure of the **brain** is very complex.
87. Men may have brains (e) without being interesting.
88. Put on the **brake** when you go down the slope.
89. He was seated on a **branch** of the tree.
90. The road has a branch (e) to the left.
91. There is a branch (e) of the business here.
92. Ornaments of **brass** were on the tables.
93. He took the **bread** out of the basket.
94. There is no **breath** in a dead body.
95. There was not a breath (e) of wind.
96. He was *out of breath* after running.
97. He put another **brick** on the wall.
98. They made a military **bridge** across the river.
99. The sun was **bright** this morning.
100. He is very bright (e) boy at school.
101. She has a bright (e) look on her face.
102. The egg was **broken** by the fall.
103. He was a broken (e) man after his son's death.
104. She has a **brother** but no sister.
105. The field is **brown** with dead leaves.
106. You seem older in *brown* than in green.
107. Here is a small **brush** for your nails.
108. If you give your coat a brush (e) the dust will come off.
109. The water in the **bucket** is not clean.
110. The store is a great **building** at the end of this road.
111. There is more building (e) going on now.
112. He is *building up* a business.
113. A rubber **bulb** was part of the apparatus.
114. The electric light bulb (s) is smashed.
115. There was a deep **burn** on the table.
116. The gas burner (s) is making a noise.
117. There has been a **burst** in the water-pipe.
118. She was surprised at his burst (e) of angry words.
119. I don't let my **business** become common knowledge.
120. Men are better at business (e) than women.
121. He has a good business (e) in the town.
122. She is not beautiful **but** she is good.
123. I have no **butter** on my bread.
124. The loss of a **button** is not very important.
125. Put your finger on the button (e) of the electric bell.
126. Their house is **by** the sea.
127. The matches are made by (e) a machine.
128. He was working *by* electric light.
129. The goods came *by* rail.
130. Women are judged *by* their looks.
131. The milk-men go *by* every morning.

C

1. You may have a **cake** with your milk.
2. Here is a cake (e) of soap.
3. Society women get in front of the **camera** for advertisement.
4. The cover is made of **canvas** to keep out the wet.
5. The men were sleeping *under canvas.*
6. It was painted on stiff **card** in gold letters.
7. Send me a card (s) if you come.
8. Take great **care** when you are driving.
9. Her face is so lined with care (e) that she seems old.
10. He still keeps a horse and **carriage** in the country.
11. The railway carriage (e) was full.
12. There was trouble about the carriage (e) of the goods.
13. How much will the carriage (e) on this box be ?
14. Every **bullock-cart** makes a noise.
15. A dog and a **cat** have little in common.
16. There is no **cause** for fear.
17. He is a worker for the cause (e) of peace.
18. I am **certain** that water is wet.
19. There is a certain (e) tin where the tea is kept.

20. The pencil is fixed by a **chain** to the table.
21. That was a surprising chain (e) of events.
22. There is a chain (e) of mountains across America.

23. This water has **chalk** in it.
24. Here is a red chalk (s) for the blackboard.

25. The working of **chance** is very strange.
26. This is your chance (e) to get a knowledge of Basic.
27. The *chances* are against it.

28. There is no **change** in the weather.
29. Here is the change (e) from your rupee-note.

30. There are some **cheap** things in this store.
31. The play is full of cheap (e) humour.

32. Some sorts of **cheese** have a strong smell.

33. He made a **chemical** test of the liquid.
34. A strong *chemical* has made the holes.

35. The boy's **chest** is very narrow.
36. The old chest (e) is full of jewels.
37. His shirt is in the *chest of drawers* in his room.

38. The danger of fire is our **chief** fear.
39. The opinion of *the chief* is respected.

40. Her **chin** is very pointed.

41. They went to **church** every Sunday.
42. His son went into the church (e) when he was thirty.

43. He put a **circle** round the wrong words.

44. It is a very **clean** house.
45. He has a clean (e) mind.

46. The water is as **clear** as a looking-glass.
47. It is quite clear (e) that he is wrong.
48. Get the room clear (e) for the meeting.

49. The church **clock** is slow.

50. This is good **cloth** for a winter coat.
51. He gave her an old cloth (s) for a duster.
52. Beautiful clothing (e) is an attraction.

53. A black **cloud** is a sign of rain.
54. He went down the road in a cloud (e) of dust.
55. His death was a cloud (e) on our pleasure.

56. There is enough **coal** for all the fires.

57. A warm **coat** is very necessary in Scotland.
58. There was a new coat (e) of paint on the door.

59. There is a **cold** wind today.
60. He gave her a cold (e) look.
61. She has *a cold* in her head.

62. His coat **collar** was turned up.

63. There is not much **colour** in her face.
64. He made the colour (e) from a plant.

65. There was a **comb** on her dressing-table

66. The postman will **come** to the door.

67. He was living in **comfort** by himself.
68. A fire is a great comfort (e) in cold weather.

69. The work is done by a **committee** of experts.

70. There is a **common** belief in advertisement.
71. He is a common (e) man in every way.
72. The two brothers had no common (e) interests.

73. Everyone working for the **company** got a part of the profits.
74. I am only interested in her company (e) for a short time.

75. It is foolish to make a **comparison** between persons so different.
76. What is a day *in comparison with* ten years ?

77. There is great **competition** in business.
78. There is to be a sports competition (s) between the two regiments.
79. She is *in competition with* her brother.

80. The structure will be **complete** in a year.
81. He had complete (e) control of himself.

82. England has a very **complex** system of money.
83. She has *a complex* about her mother.

84. He is in a strange **condition** of mind.
85. I will get the money if certain conditions (e) are kept.

86. He has some **connection** with the university.
87. There is trouble *in connection with* payments.

88. He was **conscious** all through the operation.

89. He has great self-**control** in times of danger.
90. The air-plane controls (e) were damaged.
91. The manager is *in control* at the works.
92. The dog was *under control* all the time.

93. These cakes were made by our **cook** this morning.
94. A gas cooker (s) is cleaner than a coal fire.

95. He got **copper** out of his mine.
96. He gave me some coppers (s) to get his papers.

97. The room is a **copy** of an old one.
98. He gave her a copy (e) of his book.

99. The goat had a **cord** round its neck.

100. A topee is lined with **cork** to keep out the sun.
101. Put the cork (s) back in the bottle.

102. Underclothing made of **cotton** is not warm.
103. There is no cotton (s) in the needle.

104. She gets a **cough** every winter.

105. The town and the **country** have different attractions.
106. There is no flat country (e) in Wales.
107. Every country (e) has its flag.

108. There is ink on the **cover** of the book.
109. Put the cover (s) on the pot.
110. The tree gave them cover (e) from the sun.
111. Is damage by water *covered* in your insurance ?

112. We keep a **cow** to give us milk.

113. The water came through a **crack** in the vessel.
114. The driver made a loud crack (e) with his whip.

115. Has he much **credit** at the bank?
116. My brother got no credit (e) for the discovery.
117. He is *a credit to* his regiment.
118. It is a **crime** to take another man's property.
119. Some say it is a crime (e) to be the worse for drink.
120. It is very **cruel** to keep animals without food.
121. Give the berries a **crush** with your fork.
122. He gave a **cry** of pain.
123. The baby is crying (e) for its mother.
124. I gave her a **cup** made in China.
125. The strong **current** is a danger to swimmers.
126. The electric current (s) has been cut off.
127. He was only voicing the *current* views about war.
128. There is no **curtain** across the window.
129. The stage was dark when the curtain (s) went up.
130. There is a **curve** in the road at that place.
131. Put this **cushion** under your head.
132. The meat was **cut** into small bits.
133. I saw the suggestion in a cutting (e) from a newspaper.
134. He gave himself *a cut* with a knife.

D

1. The insurance man saw what **damage** had been done.
2. He got £50 *damages* from the company.
3. The red light is a sign of **danger** on the roads.
4. Drinkers are a danger (e) to themselves.
5. The old man was *in danger of* death in the water.
6. She has a love of **dark** colours.
7. Cats see more in *the dark* than a man does.
8. They have a **daughter** but no son.
9. We were at the hotel for one **day** only.
10. It was a cold day (e) with no sun.
11. In *the old days* the towns were smaller.
12. The man was **dead** before help came.
13. My fingers go dead (e) when I am cold.
14. That point of view is dead (e) now.
15. Eggs are **dear** in the winter.
16. She is a very dear (e) friend.
17. His sad **death** was a great blow.
18. In death (e) all men are equal.
19. The amount of his **debt** is £100.
20. I am conscious of my debt (e) to him for what he has done.
21. The judge gave a **decision** against the prisoner.
22. A man of decision (e) is needed for the work.
23. The sea is **deep** where the boat went down.
24. That is a very deep (e) book you are reading.
25. The water is one **degree** under boiling point.
26. He got some degree (e) of pleasure out of it.
27. Some insects have very **delicate** wings.
28. She has very delicate (e) feelings.
29. A servant is in a **dependent** position.
30. Her dress has a **design** of flowers on it.
31. It was by design (e) that they came here together.
32. I have a **desire** to see other countries.
33. Get poison for the **destruction** of the rats.
34. Every **detail** of the agreement is fixed.
35. The loss of five rupees is not a detail (s) to a poor man.
36. Existence would be changed by the **development** of a new sense.
37. An important new development (e) was caused by the news.
38. He sent his sons to **different** schools.
39. A person with a bad **digestion** has little interest in food.
40. The road goes in the **direction** of Bombay.
41. He is responsible for the direction (e) of the business.
42. I gave him directions (e) how to get there.
43. Her hands were **dirty** from the fire.
44. The authorities said it was a dirty (e) book.
45. He made a **discovery** of great value to science.
46. He was shut up after the discovery (e) of the crime.
47. They were having a **discussion** about language.
48. You will get a **disease** if you have bad food.
49. I have a feeling of **disgust** for dead bodies.
50. She went away *in disgust* when she saw it.
51. They had a long **distance** to go that day.
52. There will be a **distribution** of clothing to the poor.
53. In Russia the distribution (e) of money has been changed.
54. He was in the top **division** of the school.
55. There is a division (e) between the rooms.
56. They made an equal division (e) of the money.
57. There is a division (e) of opinion on that question.
58. Will you **do** something for me?
59. Some of his doings (e) were common knowledge.
60. If they *do* come, I will go out.
61. It will be sad if you *do not see* the play.
62. I went back and so *did* the others.
63. He sent his **dog** after the sheep.
64. The lock of the **door** is broken.
65. He is in **doubt** about what to do.
66. They were going **down** the mountain.
67. They took his statement *down* at the police-station.
68. The smell of a **drain** is very unhealthy.
69. War payments are draining (e) our gold away.
70. The paper is in the **drawer** of the writing-table.

71. An interest in **dress** is natural to women.
72. She has on a different dress (s) every day.
73. He put a dressing (e) on the burn.
74. There is a thick dressing (e) on the meat.
75. He gave the horse a **drink** of water.
76. It is not possible to get drink (s) after 11 at night.
77. The man had experience of **driving** an automobile.
78. The picture was fixed by driving (e) a nail through the frame.
79. They were forced on by a *driving* wind.
80. Put one **drop** of poison in the milk.
81. It was a drop (e) of ten feet to the earth.
82. There is a *drop* in the price of food.
83. Your coat will get **dry** in front of the fire.
84. There is thick **dust** on the books.
85. He got some gold dust (e) from a miner.
86. The servant had a duster (s) in her hand.

E

1. Put cotton wool in your **ear** to keep out the cold.
2. The news only *came to my ears* yesterday.
3. She is going **early** in the morning.
4. They were very early (e) at the parade.
5. The fertile **earth** is ready for the seed.
6. All the nations of the earth (e) have different languages.
7. The house is on the **east** side of the town.
8. They went *east* to China.
9. The wind from *the east* is very cold.
10. There is sand by the **edge** of the water.
11. New theories of **education** are needed.
12. His words had the **effect** of making her angry.
13. There is a broken **egg** in the basket.
14. Rubber is an **elastic** substance.
15. He has very elastic (s) views about what is right.
16. I gave her a bit of *elastic* to keep her stocking up.
17. The trains are worked by **electric** power.
18. I am going by street *electric* into the town.
19. His work was done by the **end** of the day.
20. You have put an -ing ending (e) on this word.
21. The house is at the *end* of the street.
22. The war *came to an end* in 1945.
23. Have a look at the **engine** of your automobile.
24. He took the engine (s) safely into the station.
25. There is **enough** bread for all.
26. The two rooms are of **equal** size.
27. The woman is more like *an equal* than a servant.
28. There is an **error** in the account.
29. I did not **even** see her.
30. A strange **event** took place there.
31. Will his wound **ever** get better ?
32. He is working **every** day in the garden.
33. He is a bad **example** to his sister.
34. This picture is an early example (s) of the painter's work.
35. He gets angry frequently, *for example,* when I am out late.
36. The boys made an **exchange** of their watches.
37. The Japanese exchange (e) was very low.
38. He was on the Exchange (e) for some years.
39. They had no knowledge of the **existence** of such a place.
40. He has no belief in any existence (s) after death.
41. Latvia *came into existence* after World War I.
42. The crack was caused by the **expansion** of the metal.
43. Will you give us an *expansion* of your theory ?
44. He has not had much **experience** of driving tanks.
45. I had a strange experience (e) the other night.
46. She sent for a medical **expert** when her son was ill.
47. He has an *expert* touch.
48. The pain in her **eye** is caused by nerve-trouble.
49. He was put to death *before the eyes* of his friends.

F

1. She was looking at her **face** in the glass.
2. There were ornaments on the face (e) of the building.
3. He is not facing (e) his trouble in the right way.
4. I was troubled by the **fact** that she did not get better.
5. He had a very bad **fall** down some steps.
6. The leaves are yellow in the fall (e) of the year.
7. There was a sudden *fall* in the price of food.
8. He made a **false** statement to the police.
9. Take care that he is not false (e) to you.
10. He comes from a very old Rajput **family.**
11. The girl has been one of the family (e) for quite a long time.
12. The school is not very **far** from the barracks.
13. He keeps fifty cows on his **farm** in the country.
14. Her face is very **fat** but her body is thin.
15. She was taking a fat (e) parcel to the post.
16. There is not a bit of *fat* on this meat.
17. His old mother and **father** were waiting for him.
18. Most men have some **fear** of death.
19. She has put a new **feather** in her hat.
20. He was made very **feeble** by his disease.
21. He made a feeble (e) attempt to put it right.
22. I have no **feeling** in my fingers.
23. It is best to keep angry feelings (s) under control.
24. The insect puts in its feelers (s) when it is touched.

25. I saw the **female** bird seated on her eggs.
26. If the dog is *a female* she will be more loving.
27. The land is very **fertile** by the river.
28. Fairies are a **fiction** which the young take seriously.
29. He is interested in fiction (s) and stories of the past.
30. The cows are kept in a **field** by the river.
31. Money-making is outside the field (e) of his interests.
32. The dogs were having a **fight** about a bone.
33. It was one of the greatest fights (s) of the war.
34. She had a ring on one **finger** of her left hand.
35. The danger of **fire** at sea is very great.
36. Put some coal on the fire (s) before you go.
37. The public was moved by the fire (e) of his words.
38. Monday is not the **first** day of the week.
39. That man will one day be first (e) in the medical field.
40. This flower is *the first* I have seen this year.
41. He got a **fish** on the end of his rod.
42. His collar was **fixed** with a broken button.
43. The time of the meeting is fixed (e) for 3.
44. Every nation has a **flag** of a different design.
45. The rod was heated in the **flame** of the wax light.
46. The building was *in flames* before the fire-engines came.
47. Holland is a very **flat** country.
48. I put the dress *flat* on the bed.
49. They are taking *a flat* and giving up their house.
50. We will make our long **flight** in a small airplane.
51. The army was in flight (e) across the snow.
52. The room has a polished **floor** for dancing.
53. They are on the first floor (e) of the new building.
54. There is not even one **flower** in the garden.
55. Do not let that **fly** get on your food.
56. She put the letter in a **fold** of her dress.
57. He was putting a folder (e) round the papers.
58. Fruit is the best **food** for the summer months.
59. This skin food (e) is free from all poison.
60. You will be very **foolish** if you give him money.
61. He put his **foot** on the worm.
62. There is a town near the foot (e) of the mountain.
63. This is a good place **for** dancing.
64. He has not made payment *for* the goods.
65. I am doing business *for* my father.
66. Here is a cheque *for* twenty pounds.
67. She was looking *for* her stamps.
68. They are sailing *for* England tomorrow.
69. The window was broken by the **force** of the blow.
70. The use of force (s) does not make men good.
71. We are cutting down our forces (e) on land and sea.
72. Newspapers may be a force (e) for good or bad.
73. Have you put the knife and **fork** on the table ?
74. There is a fork (e) in the road near Poona.
75. The cake was made in the **form** of a heart.
76. He has a strange form (e) of the disease.
77. He had to go through some forms (e) before joining the society.
78. The ship is going **forward** at a great rate.
79. He was the most *forward* boy in the school.
80. The brown **fowl** is fat enough for the table.
81. He is getting a silver **frame** for her picture.
82. They are building the steel frame (e) of the ship.
83. He is in his room *framing* an answer to the letter.
84. When I am **free** I will come.
85. He was giving the men free (e) drinks.
86. Rain and mist are very **frequent** in England.
87. An old **friend** came to see me.
88. The old man is a great friend (e) to animals.
89. The wind is coming **from** the North.
90. The business went better *from* that day.
91. Knives are *made from* good steel.
92. There was a dirty mark on the **front** of her dress.
93. The waves were coming over the front (s) this morning.
94. We had a *front* seat at the theatre.
95. Will you have some **fruit** before your meal ?
96. It is a pleasure to see the fruits (e) of one's work.
97. That green bottle is **full** of poison.
98. She was looking at the full (e) moon coming up.
99. Atom bombs will be used in a **future** war.
100. My designs for *the future* are uncertain.

G

1. There is a beautiful **garden** at the back of the house.
2. You now have a **general** idea of Basic.
3. There is a very general (e) feeling that he is right.
4. The knowledge which you **get** will be of value.
5. The room will quickly get (e) cold without a fire.
6. It is uncommon to *get up* before six.
7. She was the only **girl** in the family.
8. He said he would **give** her some flowers.
9. The horse *gave a kick* with his back legs.
10. He only *gives trouble* when he is ill.
11. I will *give a talk* about insects.
12. These are bits of **glass** from the smash.
13. Will you give me a glass (e) of milk, please ?
14. He has to have *glasses* for reading.
15. The hole in your **glove** is getting wider.
16. They had a fight with the gloves (s) last night.

17. He is getting ready to **go** to the country.
18. A wise man *goes by* past experience.
19. The milk of the **goat** is Mr. Gandhi's food.
20. The Bank will not give you **gold** in exchange for money.
21. The grass is touched with gold (e) by the sun.
22. Her hair is bright *gold* in colour.
23. It was a **good** example of his work.
24. They sent the *goods* by rail.
25. Is it possible to have **government** of all for all by all ?
26. There was trouble between the governments (e) of France and England.
27. No-one came forward to undertake the government (e) of the country.
28. He has got a **grain** of sand in his eye.
29. Canada sends most of her grain (e) to England.
30. They are cutting the **grass** while it is dry.
31. The wind did a **great** amount of damage.
32. My friend has become a great (e) man in industry.
33. The grass is very **green** after the rain.
34. That is a bad *green* for a room.
35. The sea was rough and **grey** under the dark sky.
36. If you have *grey* it will not get dirty.
37. The police kept a tight **grip** on his arm.
38. He seemed to be in the grip (e) of a strange power.
39. He gave a gripping (e) account of his fight.
40. He was in the middle of a **group** of angry men.
41. Men are slower in **growth** than most other animals.
42. He had an operation for a growth (e) in his stomach.
43. It is necessary to take a **guide** up the mountain.
44. He was pointing his **gun** at the house.

H

1. She took a **hair** off his coat.
2. She was brushing her *hair* before the glass.
3. Give me a **hammer** and some nails.
4. She put her **hand** out for the money.
5. The letter was in a hand (e) I had not seen before.
6. One of the hands (e) of my watch is broken.
7. His hat and coat were **hanging** on the door.
8. If you put your uniforms on hangers (s) they will not get crushed.
9. They were right in *hanging* the man.
10. The boy and girl were **happy** in their love.
11. That is a very happy (e) idea of yours.
12. Ships come into the **harbour** every day.
13. Put a cushion on that **hard** seat.
14. It was very hard (e) to make a decision.
15. The manager had a hard (e) look on his face.
16. The ornaments are not in **harmony** with the room.
17. New ideas of harmony (e) are being used in music.
18. She went out with no **hat** on her head.
19. His hats come from the best hatter (s) in the town.
20. International **hate** is the cause of war.
21. She had a strange hate (e) for cats.
22. I will not let him **have** the key.
23. I am pleased that the cook *has made* the cakes.
24. The old mother *has her way* in everything.
25. My brother was happy when **he** got the reward.
26. He went to sleep with his **head** on his arms.
27. The blow was given with the head (e) of a hammer.
28. My father is the head (e) of the school.
29. He was reading the headings (e) in the paper.
30. I went to see the *head* man at the office.
31. He was strong and **healthy** before he became ill.
32. The old woman's **hearing** is not good.
33. She was given a hearing (e) by the committee.
34. The judge was late for the hearing (e) on Friday.
35. I saw that he was *hearing* every word.
36. Lifting weights is bad for a feeble **heart**.
37. He has a very kind heart (e) though he is rough.
38. The sun gives **heat** to the earth.
39. We do nothing in the heat (s) but go to sleep.
40. The police gave **help** to the wounded man.
41. His knowledge of English was a help (e) to him in Italy.
42. Put that box **here** near me.
43. They went up a very **high** mountain.
44. He has a high (e) position in the Army.
45. The airplane went up *high* over the clouds.
46. His knowledge of the **history** of India is very limited.
47. He is teaching history (s) in a school.
48. The fowls got out through a **hole** in the wall.
49. They made a pipe out of a **hollow** rod.
50. The bird was in *the hollow* of a tree.
51. Her coat was on a **hook** on the wall.
52. The young are full of **hope** for the future.
53. The woman's great hope (e) was her son.
54. That cow had a **horn** broken in a fight.
55. Only the best horn (e) is used for glasses.
56. He is playing the horn (e) in the band to-night.
57. He goes to market with a **horse** and cart.
58. He was taken to **hospital** with a broken leg.
59. In another **hour** the journey will be over.
60. At this hour (e) they are generally in bed.
61. His office is in the **house** at the end of the street.
62. They are living in a small house (s) in the country.
63. He was surprised and said "**How** was it done ?"
64. I am going to see *how* she is getting on.
65. They have no idea *how* far it is.
66. Did you see *how* he took the last cake ?

67. He will be in a bad **humour** if she is late.
68. The book has very little humour (e) to make it interesting.
69. The girl is *humouring* her father by going with him.

I

1. I was foolish to say **I** would go.
2. Do not go on the **ice** when it is thin.
3. There is a market for ices (e) in the warm weather.
4. He has some new **idea** about education.
5. I would go for a swim **if** the water was warmer.
6. He went to see *if* the door was locked.
7. If he is **ill** send him to the hospital.
8. The end of the war was an **important** event in history.
9. I had a strong **impulse** to say something.
10. He had a number of things **in** his pocket.
11. We go to the sea in (e) the summer.
12. He is interested *in* family trees.
13. Give me your opinion *in* writing.
14. The word is wrong *in* this connection.
15. When I get *in* I will make tea.
16. The government got money by an **increase** of taxes.
17. There has been an increase (e) of 6d. in the price.
18. This is a reward for your **industry** at school.
19. The conditions of trade and industry (e) get no better.
20. There is trouble in the cotton industry (e).
21. May I have a pen and **ink** for my letters ?
22. A bite from an **insect** may be serious.
23. This was the **instrument** used in the crime.
24. He was playing a brass instrument (s) in the band.
25. The boy was used as an instrument (e) by his father.
26. Have you taken out an **insurance** against fire ?
27. I was late with the insurance (e) this month.
28. He was looking with much **interest** at the new picture.
29. My brother has an interest (e) in that farm.
30. There was no payment of interest (e) this year.
31. It is *in your interests* to see what is done.
32. The radio may be a greater **invention** than the steam engine.
33. He was quick in the invention (e) of good reasons.
34. Horse's shoes are made of **iron** because it is hard.
35. She was using an iron (e) to get the dress smooth.
36. We are going to an **island** in the Pacific.

J

1. She puts a special **jelly** on her hands.
2. We had jelly (s) with fruit in it.
3. Someone has taken the **jewel** from the safe.
4. There is an island at the **join** of the two rivers.
5. I will get the joiner (e) to put up some shelves.
6. He is talking of **joining** the army.
7. They are going on a **journey** across Europe.
8. He is a very good **judge** of horses.
9. The prisoner gave the judge (s) an angry look.
10. The monkey took a **jump** from the tree.

K

1. I am going to **keep** my knife in my hand.
2. I am not my brother's keeper (s), am I ?
3. It is hard to *keep* the flies off the food.
4. He said he would *keep* my money for me.
5. Good sportsmen *keep* (to) the rules.
6. She will be angry if I *keep* (on) going there.
7. I will put the **kettle** on the fire for tea.
8. He quickly took the **key** out of the lock.
9. The music is in the key (e) of C Sharp.
10. These letters may be a key (e) to the secret of his past.
11. His horse has given him a **kick** on the leg.
12. The engine gave a kick (e) when it was started.
13. His brother is a very **kind** old man.
14. She gave the baby a **kiss** when she put it into bed.
15. He got a blow on the **knee** from a hockey-stick.
16. She had the baby *on her knee* (e) while she was washing it.
17. There was blood on the **knife** in his hand.
18. Put a **knot** in the thread.
19. If there is a knot (e) in that wood it will not do.
20. He has a great amount of **knowledge** for one so young.
21. Different theories of knowledge (e) have been put forward.

L

1. An island is a bit of **land** with water all round it.
2. The workers go from the land (s) into the towns.
3. There was a footstep on the landing (e) outside my room.
4. There is great need for a **language** for international use.
5. His horse came down at the **last** jump.
6. It was full of flowers (the) last (e) time I was there.
7. He was the *last* to go to bed.
8. It is **late** for them to be working.
9. The trees are very late (e) (in) coming out.
10. He came *late* and went early.
11. The baby gave a happy **laugh** when his mother came near.

12. There was a **law** against Sunday amusements.
13. Einstein has made the laws (e) of motion more complex.
14. A knowledge of English law (e) is not much help in France.
15. They have a respect for the law (e) and the church.
16. Pipes made of **lead** are readily bent.
17. I will put a new lead (e) in my silver pencil.
18. There was only one **leaf** on the tree.
19. One of the leaves (e) came out of the book.
20. The process of **learning** is slow and hard.
21. The teacher had much learning (e) but little commonsense.
22. It is clear that you are *learning* Basic very quickly.
23. Pig skin is a good **leather** for bags.
24. He does everything with his **left** hand.
25. In England we keep to *the left* on the roads.
26. The horse had one **leg** in the water.
27. This table has one leg (e) shorter than the others.
28. Mother will not **let** me have a swim.
29. I am ready now, so *let us make* a start.
30. Some words have only one **letter** in them.
31. I am writing a letter (e) to my father.
32. Tagore was India's greatest man of *letters.*
33. The river goes down to this **level** in the summer.
34. The work is at a higher *level* than seemed probable.
35. There is not one *level* floor in the building.
36. He was going into the **library** to get a book.
37. I made him an offer for his library (e) of old books.
38. We will give the lorry a **lift** when you are ready.
39. It is necessary to have a lift (e) in this tall building.
40. The sun's **light** makes us warm and healthy.
41. Please put a light (e) to the fire in my room.
42. Get a new bulb for the light (e) in my room.
43. These facts will give new light (e) on the question.
44. A horse is not **like** a cow.
45. There is a **limit** to the amount he will give.
46. You are taking a very limited (e) view of the question.
47. He put a **line** through the wrong words.
48. This is the shortest line (e) to the door.
49. There was a long line (e) of automobiles outside.
50. There is a man on the line (e) in front of the train.
51. The clothing is on the line (e) in the garden.
52. I have got some **linen** for a summer dress.
53. Most of the linen (s) is still wet.
54. There is a *linen* cover on the bed.
55. The hair on his **lip** was black and waxed.
56. He was drinking a dark **liquid** out of a bottle.
57. The chemical is in a *liquid* form.
58. Will you give me a **list** of the names, please?
59. He has taken very **little** food to-day.
60. Send your *little* girls to school.
61. The boy was cutting up a **living** worm.
62. I take no interest in *living* now that she is dead.
63. He was unable to get *a living* as a teacher.
64. It will be wise to put a **lock** on the door.
65. It seemed a very **long** distance to the town.
66. There has been no news for a *long* time.
67. He gave a quick **look** in her direction.
68. He certainly has the look (e) of a soldier.
69. She had on a **loose** coat over her dress.
70. They were disgusted by his loose (e) behaviour.
71. The teacher said it was a loose (e) way of using the word.
72. He was happy before the **loss** of his money.
73. The father's death was a great loss (e) to the family.
74. A short time after its loss (e) she had her bag again.
75. He was talking in a **loud** voice.
76. He got married for **love** and not for money.
77. The young man was the only love (e) in her life.
78. The teacher has a great love (e) of talking.
79. It is clear that she is *in love with* him.
80. He *makes love to* every girl he sees.
81. The land is very **low** near the river.
82. Some men of low (e) birth become great.
83. He has done some very low (e) tricks.
84. He is starting in a *low* position in the business.

M

1. He has got a **machine** for cutting the grass.
2. I will **make** a box.
3. The goods came straight from the maker (s).
4. Ram will *make* Gopal do his work.
5. It is possible to *make money* by keeping dogs.
6. Two and two *make* four.
7. The colours of **male** birds are frequently beautiful.
8. They let no *male* inside their doors.
9. The days of **man** are short on the earth.
10. He is the right man (s) for the work.
11. If he had been a man (e) he would have gone first.
12. My father is the **manager** of a coal mine.
13. He was looking at a **map** of Asia.
14. She had a dirty **mark** on her face.
15. I have put a mark (s) against the name.
16. This sepoy got high marks (e) in the test.
17. The eggs were sent to the **market** yesterday.
18. There is no market (e) for cotton now.
19. They will be **married** in the old church.
20. There is a **mass** of ice in the river.
21. What is the mass (e) of this substance?
22. The education of the **masses** is very important.
23. He put a burning **match** into the dry grass.

24. A stone is a **material** thing.
25. She has very material (e) views.
26. Only the best *materials* are used at our works.
27. It is my opinion that he **may** be ill.
28. If the weather is good I *may* go away.
29. If you are tired you *may* take a rest.
30. He had a good **meal** of meat and fruit.
31. Grain is made into meal (e) for bread.
32. An hour is not a **measure** of size.
33. I said that the **meat** was not cooked enough.
34. He is in need of **medical** attention.
35. There has been no **meeting** between them for years.
36. There will be a meeting (s) of representatives.
37. The question before the meeting (e) is this.
38. I have a very good **memory** for faces.
39. I have no memory (e) of the event.
40. The stone was put up *in memory of* his death.
41. Steel is the **metal** most used by engineers.
42. There is a table in the **middle** of the room.
43. I was in the middle (e) of the group.
44. Go in by the *middle* door of the three.
45. The country is under **military** rule.
46. It was necessary for *the military* to take control.
47. Do you take **milk** in your tea ?
48. He has an interesting but unbalanced **mind.**
49. Body and mind (e) are joined together.
50. He does not *give his mind to* his work.
51. I went down a coal **mine** yesterday.
52. The ship was damaged by a mine (e) at sea.
53. It takes one **minute** to get to the station.
54. I kept him waiting a minute (e) before I was ready.
55. The thick white **mist** made it hard to see the road.
56. The silver was **mixed** with lead.
57. It was a very mixed (e) meeting.
58. His ideas were very mixed (e) on the question.
59. He has enough **money** for all his needs.
60. The man made the **monkey** do its tricks.
61. February is the shortest **month** in the year.
62. The light of the **moon** came through the window.
63. Jupiter's moon (e) is a small one.
64. At two in the **morning** we got to bed.
65. It is a beautiful morning (s) for a swim.
66. She is the **mother** of six sons.
67. The ship's **motion** made her ill.
68. He made a motion (s) with his hand.
69. They put forward a motion (e) to that effect.
70. We saw a high **mountain** in the distance.
71. He put the food in his **mouth** quickly.
72. There was a stone at the mouth (e) of the hole.
73. There is a harbour at the mouth (e) of the river.
74. With a quick **move** of his arm he got free.
75. A good political move (s) has to be sudden.
76. It was a very moving (e) story.
77. I am regretting very **much** that I did not go.
78. We have not had *much* rain.
79. The Earth is *much greater* than the Moon.
80. There is not *much* to do now.
81. He is a teacher of **music** at our school.
82. The birds are making music (e) in the woods.
83. He put his music (e) on the top of the piano.
84. He has a strong **muscle** in his arm.

N

1. He was hammering a **nail** into the wall.
2. Her finger nail (e) came off after the blow.
3. He said his **name** was David.
4. He has a bad name (e) in the town.
5. They were walking on the **narrow** footway.
6. Estonia became a **nation** after World War I.
7. The opinion of the *nation* was against war.
8. A tooth is a **natural** growth.
9. It now seems quite a natural (e) thing to go by air.
10. We are not living **near** enough to go frequently.
11. She is living quite *near* her friend.
12. I am a *near* relation of the girl.
13. Have you got the **necessary** money for the journey ?
14. The cloth round his **neck** was old and dirty.
15. There was a crack in the neck (e) of the bottle.
16. There is great **need** for an increase in trade.
17. Families in need (s) are helped by the Boards.
18. My greatest need (e) is clean clothing.
19. I gave her a **needle** and thread.
20. The food got on a **nerve** in my tooth.
21. He has put **net** over the fruit-trees.
22. My hair net (s) is broken.
23. Give me some of the **new** bread you have made.
24. They have a new (e) process for painting walls.
25. I have had some **news** from my son in Burma.
26. It was a dark **night** with no stars.
27. There is **no** reason for this outburst.
28. I said '*No*' ! to his request for money.
29. There was the small **noise** of a rat on the floor.
30. Don't make such a noise (s) when I'm working.
31. The papers made a great noise (e) about the discovery.
32. Trade conditions were not **normal** after the war.
33. This room has a **north** light.
34. The airplane was heading *north* for Delhi.
35. It is colder in *the north* than in the South.
36. He was blowing his **nose** and coughing.

37. It is best **not** to get angry.
38. He was making a **note** in a little book.
39. She was reading the notes (s) of the music slowly.
40. He sent me a note (e) requesting me to come.
41. You got a wrong note (e) in the middle of your song.
42. Please give me a note (e) in exchange for this silver.
43. The book is by a very noted (e) writer.
44. Will you have some tea **now** or later ?
45. Their house is **number** fifteen.
46. They have got the number (e) of pages wrong.
47. There are a number (e) of pictures on the walls.
48. This month's number (e) of the paper is a good one.
49. We gave a **nut** to the monkey.
50. Put the nut (e) on the screw.

O

1. This book is based on the **observation** of behaviour.
2. He made the observation (e) in an angry voice.
3. If he had a little more observation (e) he would get on better.
4. He was kept *under observation* at the hospital.
5. This feather is part **of** my hat.
6. Don't take all *of* the cake.
7. Here is a tin *of* brown sugar.
8. His smile was a sign *of* pleasure.
9. She has a son *of* six.
10. The leaves are falling **off** the trees.
11. My friend *put me off seeing* that play.
12. He made her an **offer** of help.
13. What was the highest offer (s) for the house ?
14. He took her an offering (e) of flowers.
15. The manager is in his **office** every day.
16. Fish may be cooked in **oil** or butter.
17. His mother is an **old** woman now.
18. Drink was cheap *in the old days.*
19. The kettle is **on** the fire.
20. The test will take place *on* Wednesday.
21. The picture comes *on* at 3-30.
22. She is not **only** foolish, but unkind.
23. I gave the *only* money I had.
24. She was seated at the **open** window.
25. They were quite open (e) about their love.
26. The value of competition is an open (e) question.
27. The dog got through an opening (e) in the wall.
28. We have our food in *the open* in the summer.
29. He has great knowledge of the **operation** of the mind.
30. He has had an operation (s) on his nose.
31. He gave his expert **opinion** for nothing.
32. *In my opinion* he is right.
33. They went in **opposite** directions.
34. Black is *the opposite* of white.
35. Will you take tea **or** coffee ?
36. The country is named Russia *or* the U.S.S.R.
37. I take an **orange** every morning.
38. Have a quieter colour than orange (e) in your room.
39. The sun is like an *orange* ball in the sky.
40. The questions are in the same **order** as the answers.
41. He comes from the lower orders (s) of society.
42. He gave his men the order (e) to go forward.
43. He is joining an order (e) this year.
44. He was pinning the order (e) to the man's coat.
45. Some form of **organization** is necessary in every society.
46. She is head of an organization (e) for clothing the poor.
47. I was pleased with his organization (e) of the journey.
48. She had an **ornament** in her hair.
49. Here are some **other** examples of his work.
50. If that door is shut *the other* may be open.
51. He took the eggs **out** of the basket.
52. The meat has been in the **oven** for some time.
53. I have a roof **over** my head.
54. You will *get over* the disease.
55. Who is the **owner** of the property ?

P

1. He is reading the first **page** of the book.
2. Please give me a page (e) of your writing-paper.
3. She had a bad **pain** in her stomach.
4. He had a pained (s) look on his face.
5. Get some green **paint** for the front of the house.
6. She puts on paint (s) and powder.
7. He has done an oil painting (e) of his mother.
8. There is some writing-**paper** on the table.
9. The Post Office sent me a paper (s) to be signed.
10. These two lines are **parallel** to one another.
11. He put forward a parallel (e) theory in another field.
12. The last war has no *parallel* in history.
13. The goods were put in a **parcel** and sent by post.
14. He gave his son **part** of the land.
15. She took the chief part (e) in the play.
16. She has a parting (e) in her hair now.
17. They had a sad parting (e) on the station.
18. The time is **past** for planting seeds.
19. His memory of *the past* is as clear as ever.
20. The cook put fish **paste** on the bread.
21. The stamps have not enough paste (s) on them.

22. He got no **payment** for the first year's work.
23. I gave her a book as a payment (e) for her trouble.
24. He has money for the payment (e) of the account.
25. The nations made **peace** with one another.
26. There is no peace (e) in a town.
27. She will be *at peace* now he has gone.
28. The point of my **pen** has got broken.
29. The picture was done with a **pencil** and chalk.
30. She is the strangest **person** I have ever seen.
31. Fictions have no **physical** existence.
32. All recruits do physical (s) training.
33. He was painting a **picture** of the mosque.
34. My actor-friend is making a picture (s) at Hollywood.
35. His writings give a good picture (e) of farming conditions.
36. The taste of a **pig** is not pleasing to everyone.
37. The card was fixed by a **pin** to the parcel.
38. Water comes in a **pipe** from the water-works.
39. He was playing a pipe (e) and dancing.
40. He was smoking a pipe (e) after his meal.
41. There is no **place** of amusement open on Sunday.
42. There was a place (s) for him at the table.
43. I have got to the place (e) in the book where the body is put in a box.
44. She has taken a place (e) as a cook.
45. He was using a **plane** to get the board smooth.
46. The painter is interested in planes (e) and angles.
47. The machine got one of its planes (e) broken.
48. We keep a green **plant** in our window-box.
49. It is necessary to put in a new plant (e) for the new industry.
50. I gave him a clean **plate** and a knife.
51. He was putting a plate (e) in his camera.
52. All work and no **play** is bad for anyone.
53. The platoon is acting a play (e) in the open air.
54. She was quite happy playing (e) the piano.
55. It is a good thing to say **please** when you make a request.
56. She has a very *pleasing* face.
57. Dancing gives **pleasure** to the senses.
58. There is said to be no pleasure (e) like that of true religion.
59. A garden is a great pleasure (e) in the summer.
60. The farmer is guiding the **plough** across the field.
61. There is some money in the **pocket** of my coat.
62. I almost went back at one **point** in my flight.
63. The pencil has no point (s) to it.
64. The chief point (e) of the book is its humour.
65. In geometry a point (e) has position but no size.
66. The bursting *point* of this boiler is high.
67. He would not *come to the point* for a long time.
68. He took some **poison** and is very ill.
69. Sex may become a poison (e) to the mind.
70. She was rubbing some **polish** on her shoes.
71. The table had a good polish (e) on it.
72. If a young man has polish (e) he will probably do well.
73. The newspapers said the **political** position was serious.
74. They are so **poor** that they have no shoes.
75. This is very poor (e) material.
76. No one saw that the poor (e) woman was crying.
77. There was only one **porter** at the station.
78. There was a very tall porter (e) at the door of the hotel.
79. The house has a beautiful **position** on a slope.
80. Women in her position (s) have to be well-dressed.
81. The scout kept in the same position (e) all day.
82. He has a responsible *position* in the company.
83. It is quite **possible** that there will be another war.
84. Rain is a *possible* reason for him not coming.
85. The potatoes are in the **pot** on the fire.
86. The cook has put a **potato** in the soup.
87. The use of face **powder** has become very general.
88. They gave the baby a powder (s) at the hospital.
89. He has great **power** of thought.
90. He has no power (s) in his legs.
91. Fathers no longer have much power (e) over their sons.
92. America has become a great power (e) within the last 100 years.
93. He has no part in the **present** organization of the bank.
94. He was *present* at the meeting.
95. There is no time like *the present* for getting things done.
96. The new taxes will put up the **price** of everything.
97. I got my radio for the price (e) at which it was made.
98. Death was the price (e) of his knowledge.
99. He was reading the small **print** with glasses.
100. He has some good prints (s) on his walls.
101. The police took a print (e) of his fingers.
102. I will give you a print (e) of the picture I took.
103. You will see your name *in print* tomorrow.
104. He was put in **prison** for the crime.
105. This land is my **private** property.
106. Rain is **probable** to-night.
107. History is the **process** of change.
108. There will be a law process (s) if the agreement is broken.
109. We have got a new process (e) for making records.
110. He made money out of the **produce** from his farm.
111. I had a talk with the producer (s) of my new play.

112. He makes a great **profit** out of the business.
113. The boys got no profit (e) out of learning Sanskrit.
114. There is no private **property** under the Russian system.
115. He has a small property (s) in the country.
116. He is testing the properties (e) of acids.
117. Scott was a greater writer of **prose** than of verse.
118. There was a **protest** against his punishment.
119. He is still protesting (e) that he did not do it.
120. The books in the **public** library are quite good.
121. The gardens are open to *the public* from 10 till 5.
122. He gave a hard **pull** and the tooth came out.
123. His name gives him a pull (e) with the newspapers.
124. Sailors are working the **pump** to get the water out.
125. He will be given a **punishment** by the military authorities.
126. Public opinion is against punishment (e) by death.
127. It is a great punishment (e) to me to be ill.
128. The journey had no **purpose** but pleasure.
129. He gave the door a **push** with his foot.
130. A certain amount of push (e) is necessary in business.
131. The boy has **put** the tea-things on the table.
132. The Government has *put* a new tax on beer.
133. He was *put to death* for his views.
134. He did not *put* his country first.
135. They are unable to *put* the machine right.

Q

1. There is a pleasing **quality** about his work.
2. He has the qualities (s) which make a good ruler.
3. This cloth is of a better quality (e) than yours.
4. He had an answer to every **question** put to him.
5. I was troubled by the question (s) of how to make a living.
6. There is time for a **quick** meal before the match.
7. He was very quick (e) to see the point.
8. She has a **quiet** voice.
9. The police have very quiet (e) horses.
10. The dog would not keep quiet (e) for a minute.
11. I was pleased by *the quiet* of the country.
12. Her hair is **quite** grey now.
13. This is *quite a good* book.

R

1. There is an iron **rail** up the side of the steps.
2. The engine went off the rails (s) near the station.
3. There is a railing (e) to keep in the cows.
4. The umbrella will keep the **rain** off your hat.
5. The railway goes over a **range** of mountains.
6. We have a wide range (e) of goods in our store.
7. Do not go in range (e) of the guns.
8. The dog went after the **rat** in the outhouse.
9. The train was going at a great **rate** at the time of the smash.
10. The bank's rate (e) of interest is 3%.
11. The lamp sent out a thin **ray** of light.
12. The ear has a strong **reaction** to sound.
13. In later years she had a reaction (s) against religion.
14. The forces of reaction (s) are against village uplift.
15. I am not interested in **reading** fiction.
16. He is giving the men a reading (s) from his book.
17. There are six different readings (e) of that verse.
18. He is a man of wide reading (e) in Science and Letters.
19. He said that he was *reading* my book.
20. The room is **ready** for the meeting.
21. He has a very ready (e) tongue.
22. Here is some *ready money* for you.
23. Tin is *readily* bent.
24. There is a good **reason** for his desire to get away.
25. There was a rule of reason (e) in the time of Akbar.
26. The store gave me a **receipt** for the money.
27. We keep a **record** of births and deaths.
28. They put on dance records (s) at all hours of the day.
29. He has the swimming record (e) for the regiment.
30. His hands are **red** with blood.
31. The small towns are in *red* on the map.
32. She was full of **regret** for her foolish words.
33. He has the **regular** nose and chin of a Greek.
34. They keep regular (e) hours in the Army.
35. It is hard to get an idea of the **relation** of time to space.
36. She has gone to see a relation (e) in Bengal.
37. My income is small *in relation to* my needs.
38. Christianity is the chief **religion** of the West.
39. Sport has become a religion (e) in some schools.
40. This is a good **representative** of the group of plants.
41. The committee has sent a representative (e) to the meeting.
42. They made a *representative* selection of their goods.
43. She made a **request** for more money.
44. The ruler has the **respect** and love of the nation.
45. Bad housing is **responsible** for much disease.
46. I will not be responsible (e) for the girl's behaviour.
47. She is a very responsible (e) woman.
48. He was taking a **rest** after his journey.
49. He took the rest (e) of the cake.
50. His arms were *resting* on the table.

51. His present position is the **reward** of hard work.
52. The C. O. is giving rewards (s) today.
53. The music has the right **rhythm** for dancing.
54. In China **rice** takes the place of bread.
55. More is done with the **right** hand than with the left.
56. The sepoy gave the right (e) answer to all my questions.
57. Every square has four right (e) angles.
58. There is no clear line between *right* and wrong.
59. She has *a right to* the money.
60. There is a **ring** round the moon.
61. He gave her a ring (s) for her birthday.
62. The producers made a ring (e) to keep up prices.
63. He took a boat up the **river** for the day.
64. The road was a river (e) after the rain.
65. They are cutting a **road** across the mountains.
66. The curtain **rod** has come down.
67. The paper was in a **roll** on the floor.
68. The horse had a roll (e) in the field.
69. I generally have a roll (e) and coffee in bed.
70. He was pulling a roller (s) over the grass.
71. She was ill from the rolling (e) of the ship.
72. The workmen are putting the **roof** on the house.
73. A room with a low roof (e) gets warm in summer.
74. He has no roof (e) to his mouth.
75. I have a small **room** at the top of the house.
76. There is not enough room (e) for my boxes.
77. The plant had got its **root** under the stone.
78. One boy is at the root (e) of all the trouble.
79. His hands are **rough** with hard work.
80. He gave me a rough (e) idea of the book.
81. I was surprised at his rough (e) behaviour.
82. A ball is **round** in form.
83. The hands of the clock *go round* slowly.
84. I put a strong cord *round* the box.
85. I will give your chest a *rub* when you are in bed.
86. There is a rubber (e) on the end of my pencil.
87. The baby puts its rubber (e) playthings in its mouth.
88. The horse's neck was rubbed (s) by the leather band.
89. The rod was polished by the *rub* of the wheel.
90. He made it a **rule** to get up early.
91. Here is a foot rule (e) for measuring the floor.
92. England became great under the rule (e) of Elizabeth.
93. The first ruler (s) of England was named William.
94. We gave our dog a **run** in the country.

S

1. She was very **sad** when her lover went away.
2. It is no longer **safe** to go across the street.
3. The door of *the safe* was broken open.
4. It is no use putting up the **sail** if there is no wind.
5. We went for a sail (e) in the Mediterranean.
6. Her lover is a sailor (s) in a warship.
7. The cook has not put any **salt** in the soup.
8. These are the best salts (e) for stomach trouble.
9. He comes at the **same** time every day.
10. The place will still be *the same* in ten years time.
11. There is a wide stretch of **sand** when the sea is out.
12. The boys were playing on *the sands* in the morning.
13. The servants **say** they will go.
14. It is a common saying (e) that all men are equal.
15. Boiling point on a centigrade **scale** is at 100 degrees.
16. She was playing scales (s) very quickly on the piano.
17. He put the letter in the scales (e) to see what its weight was.
18. The boy was sent to a good **school.**
19. He was a painter of the school (e) of Raphael.
20. Not all the discoveries of **science** give profit to man.
21. There is need for a science (e) of language-teaching.
22. The dressmaker has special **scissors** for cutting buttonholes.
23. The joiner has put the last **screw** in the door.
24. I went by **sea** to New York.
25. I saw a sea (e) of faces in front of me.
26. She is resting on a **seat** in the garden.
27. He made a **second** attempt to go.
28. There are sixty *seconds* in a minute.
29. She kept the letter in a **secret** drawer.
30. He kept *the secret* to himself.
31. She has the position of **secretary** to the manager.
32. I do not **see** your hat anywhere.
33. He is going to see his friend.
34. The workmen see what to do.
35. The police quickly *saw through* the trick.
36. This tree came from a **seed** the size of my thumb-nail.
37. Competition is planting the seeds (e) of war.
38. He did not **seem** to be ill.
39. *It seems to me* that you are wrong.
40. She was responsible for the **selection** of the committee.
41. The library has a good selection (e) of books.
42. He puts **self** before everything.
43. I will **send** you the parcel by post.
44. The boys *sent* a stone through the window.
45. She has a very delicate **sense** of smell.
46. You seem to have no sense (e) of right and wrong.
47. In one sense (e) the statement may be true.
48. He had enough sense (e) to send for the police.

49. They are living in **separate** houses.
50. Your representative has made a **serious** error in coming here.
51. The new secretary is a very serious (e) sort of **girl.**
52. He has a man **servant** to take care of him.
53. He is a public servant (e) in a high position.
54. They had no teaching about **sex** when they were young.
55. The male sex (e) is the physically stronger.
56. The cows were resting in the **shade** of the trees.
57. Her dress is a beautiful shade (e) of green.
58. It is said that his shade (e) was seen after his death.
59. The dog gave himself a **shake** when he came out of the water.
60. Great men are not troubled by **shame** or regret.
61. It would be a shame (e) to put him in prison.
62. It will be necessary to have a **sharp** knife for the meat.
63. He is a sharp (e) boy but does no work.
64. There was a very sharp (e) turn in the road.
65. They were angry, and sharp (e) words were exchanged.
66. The wounded animal gave a sharp (e) cry of pain.
67. The wool from a **sheep** makes warm clothing.
68. There is a clock on the **shelf** over the fire-place.
69. We were on the same **ship** going to Italy.
70. He puts on a clean **shirt** every day.
71. The force of the **shock** sent the engine off the rails.
72. The news was a great shock (e) to the boy's relations.
73. His mother was shocked (s) by his behaviour.
74. The hole in your **shoe** will let in the wet.
75. Her hair is **short** like a boy's.
76. It will only take a *short time* to see the town.
77. The windows were **shut** because of the cold.
78. He was putting up the shutters (s) for the night.
79. The sailor had a cut on one **side** of his face.
80. A pain in the right side (s) may be serious.
81. There is another side (e) to the question.
82. Red is a **sign** of danger.
83. This is the sign (s) for addition.
84. There is not a sign (e) of the boy anywhere.
85. The secretary was signing (e) his name to the letter.
86. She had on a **silk** sari of bright blue.
87. There is no silk (s) in my needle.
88. There were ornaments of **silver** in the temple.
89. The porter gave me silver (s) in exchange for this note.
90. There is silver (e) in her hair.
91. The lovers were walking under a *silver* moon.
92. The plate has a very **simple** design on it.
93. It is quite a simple (e) trick to do.
94. He gave a very simple (e) account of the tests.
95. She has a **sister** but no brother.
96. The curtain is the right **size** for the window.
97. Her delicate **skin** was burned by the sun.
98. He took the *skin* off the apple.
99. She had on a short **skirt** for walking.
100. In the summer the Italian **sky** is very blue.
101. The baby was in a deep **sleep** all through the thunder.
102. The small boy had a **slip** on the ice.
103. There is a **slope** in the floor.
104. The green slopes (e) were covered with trees.
105. It is interesting to see a **slow** motion picture of football.
106. We give the slow (s) boys brain tests.
107. You may only have a **small** bit of cake.
108. Small secrets seem important to small (e) men.
109. There has been a great **smash** of cups.
110. There was a bad smash (s) between two automobiles.
111. His business had a smash (e) last year.
112. There is a strong **smell** of burning wood.
113. Give the milk a smell (e) to see if it is good.
114. He gave her a **smile** every morning.
115. The room was full of **smoke** from the fire.
116. I generally have a smoke (e) after tea.
117. He is a great smoker (s) and drinker.
118. The stones have been made **smooth** by the sea.
119. The way has been made smooth (e) for her by her family.
120. He is very smooth (e) in his behaviour.
121. The tooth of the **snake** had poison in it.
122. He gave a loud **sneeze** because he had a cold.
123. In the winter there is **snow** on the higher slopes.
124. I am not **so** certain as you are.
125. If it is *so* you are right.
126. We did our work and *so* did the other group.
127. The account was interesting *in so far as* it was true.
128. The workmen are there, *so* keep out of the way.
129. I got the mark off with **soap** and water.
130. The laws of **society** are sometimes wise.
131. She got into society (s) after she was married.
132. She is the head of a society (e) for the care of animals.
133. He took off a **sock** and put it in his shoe.
134. She was sleeping with a **soft** cushion under her head.
135. She was talking in a soft (e) voice.
136. The room was full of soft (e) colours.
137. Cloth is a **solid** substance.
138. The old house is a solid (e) stone building.
139. He is not to take *solids* for a week.

140. He came back from Russia with **some** interesting facts.
141. He has gone to see *some* man on business.
142. I gave the society *some* money for its organization.
143. Among these apples *some* are bad.
144. They had a **son** and a daughter.
145. That was the **song** of a blackbird.
146. No one will put my song (e) to music.
147. We have only one **sort** of button.
148. A strange **sound** came to my ears.
149. The cook made some **soup** from the bones.
150. The room has two **south** windows.
151. I go *south* in the winter.
152. It is warmer in *the south* than in the north.
153. There is not enough **space** between the lines.
154. The seats give no space (s) for our legs.
155. The earth is going round in space (e) all the time.
156. He put his **spade** into the earth.
157. Soldiers have a **special** sort of dress.
158. I gave him a **sponge** for his bath.
159. There is no salt **spoon** on the table.
160. I have had a new **spring** put in my watch.
161. In the spring (e) the flowers come out.
162. The four sides of a **square** are equal.
163. There is a market in the square (s) every week.
164. They are building a *square* house.
165. The workmen were putting up a **stage** round the building.
166. There is no room on the stage (s) for your dance.
167. The boy has got to an important stage (e) in his development.
168. He has been interested in the stage (e) for a number of years.
169. The goods have a British **stamp** on them.
170. There is no stamp (s) on the letter.
171. He gave a stamp (e) to get his feet warm.
172. There was not a **star** to be seen in the sky.
173. The printer's star (e) is the sign for a note.
174. He has made a good **start** at school.
175. The expert made a **statement** to the committee.
176. He is slow in the statement (e) of his ideas.
177. They were waiting at the **station** for their train.
178. He was taken to the police station (e) and questioned.
179. The engine was letting off **steam** in the station.
180. They took a pleasure steamer (s) up the river.
181. The cook is steaming (e) the fish.
182. The strongest **steel** is used for ships.
183. This plant has a long **stem** and thin leaves.
184. He was cleaning the stem (e) of his pipe.
185. He took a **step** away from the door.
186. That is only the first step (e) in your argument.
187. He went up the steps (e) to the front door.
188. It is time we took steps (e) to get better houses.
189. He was cutting a **stick** from a tree.
190. The boy had a stick (e) of chocolate in his mouth.
191. Paste is a **sticky** substance.
192. The picture was pasted on **stiff** cardboard.
193. She is very stiff (e) in the society of men.
194. I am quite stiff (e) from being in one position.
195. He says that he **still** has a pain.
196. I had to have a **stitch** put in my finger.
197. I will give the coat a stitch (e) for you.
198. She kept her money in a **stocking** under the floor.
199. I had a pain in my **stomach** after taking the food.
200. The house is made of **stone.**
201. A small stone (s) got into my shoe.
202. She was taking the stones (e) out of the fruit.
203. The cart came to a **stop** before the house.
204. He does not put any stops (e) in his letters.
205. The waiter put the stopper (s) on the bottle again.
206. She has a gold stopping (e) in one tooth.
207. There is nothing but a general **store** in our small town.
208. The monkey had a store (e) of nuts on a branch.
209. The building is used as a store (e) for the farmer's grain.
210. I was interested in the **story** of the discovery.
211. He is writing a crime *story* to make money.
212. All the streets are **straight** in Rangoon.
213. He is a very straight (e) man in business.
214. If there is trouble, go *straight* to the C. O.
215. I was surprised at his **strange** behaviour.
216. The servant was talking to a strange (e) man.
217. There is only one **street** in the little town.
218. His sheep are kept on a **stretch** of grassland.
219. If you give the glove a stretch (e) it will be long enough.
220. The driver was taken on a stretcher (s) to the hospital.
221. The muscles will get **strong** if the leg is used.
222. Have a cup of strong (e) coffee.
223. The Government took strong (e) measures to put a stop to it.
224. There was a high **structure** of wood round the building.
225. The physical structure (e) of nerves is simple.
226. All bodies have **substance** and weight.
227. This chemical substance (s) will be used in future wars.
228. He has no interest in **such** ideas.
229. I had not been to *such a good* hotel before.
230. He had a **sudden** desire to give a cough.
231. I take milk and **sugar** with my tea.

232. The secretary made a foolish **suggestion** to the committee.
233. The power of suggestion (e) is used in all advertisements.
234. The sun is warmest in the **summer** months.
235. The Earth goes round the **sun** every year.
236. Our sun is not the only sun (e) in existence.
237. He put an iron **support** under the shelf.
238. He is working for the support (e) of his family.
239. He got little support (e) for his political views.
240. My father is a great supporter (e) of women's education.
241. I saw with **surprise** that the box was open.
242. The news was a great surprise (e) to his friends.
243. Sugar is a very **sweet** substance.
244. The girl has a sweet (e) and happy face.
245. He gave me a box of *sweets* at the canteen.
246. We went for a **swim** in the sea yesterday.
247. The nerve **system** is very complex.
248. Basic is a new system (e) of teaching English.

T

1. There were flowers on a **table** by the window.
2. A horse makes use of its **tail** to keep the flies away.
3. He said he would **take** the picture down.
4. Training *takes* time and money.
5. Did you *take in* the sense of his words ?
6. There is some **talk** of another war.
7. He is giving a talk (e) on prisons.
8. The man was very **tall** and thin.
9. There is not much **taste** in the white of an egg.
10. I have no taste (e) because of my cold.
11. She has very good taste (e) in dress.
12. He gave me a taste (e) of his toddy.
13. In England there is a **tax** on beer.
14. She makes her living by **teaching** music.
15. The book is about the teachings (e) of Buddha.
16. He is *teaching* history.
17. There is now a **tendency** to have smaller families.
18. Getting married will be a **test** of his love for her.
19. He was first in the map-reading test (s) last year.
20. She is much shorter **than** he is.
21. I gave **that** man money.
22. I gave him *that* because he was ill and tired.
23. The man said *that* he was out of work.
24. This is **the** best way of learning Basic.
25. The Army was different **then** from what it is now.
26. I got ready and *then* we went for a walk.
27. There is a new **theory** about the disease.
28. The quickest way to go **there** is by train.
29. It is wise to have shoes made of **thick** leather for wet weather.
30. The trees were very thick (e) in some parts of the wood.
31. The blade is made of **thin** steel.
32. Her face has got thin (s) and old.
33. His hair is thin (e) on the top of his head.
34. That round white **thing** is the school clock.
35. He takes no interest in *things* now that he is old.
36. We are very happy in **this** house.
37. Who is *this* coming up the steps ?
38. He would not go to bed **though** he was very tired.
39. A foolish **thought** came into my mind.
40. He was deep in thought (e) all the time.
41. There is a loose **thread** hanging from your turban.
42. He got a bad **throat** because he got wet.
43. There is a footway **through** the woods.
44. I got the news through (e) your friend.
45. I was working all *through* the night.
46. He gave his **thumb** a blow with the hammer.
47. There was **thunder** in the distance.
48. That noise is the thunder (e) of the guns.
49. I was unable to get a **ticket** for the play.
50. The dog had a **tight** collar round its neck.
51. He did not come **till** late at night.
52. Do not say a word *till* he gives you a sign.
53. He is giving a talk on **time** and space.
54. We had no idea what time (e) the train went.
55. It was the last time (e) I ever saw her.
56. The band is getting the time (e) quite wrong.
57. Iron is coated with **tin** for some purposes.
58. She put the tin (e) of fruit on the table.
59. He was very **tired** after his long journey.
60. I am getting tired (e) of doing nothing.
61. That ship is going **to** Singapore.
62. The money will be a help *to* the family
63. Boys are sometimes cruel *to* animals.
64. The dancer was balancing on one **toe** in the middle of the stage.
65. The lovers were **together** in the boat.
66. I will be ready **tomorrow** at 9 o'clock.
67. A cat makes use of its **tongue** in drinking milk.
68. English is the mother tongue (e) of more than 500,000,000 persons.
69. A sudden tongue (e) of flame was seen in the sky.
70. He is going to have a **tooth** pulled out this morning.
71. Some of the teeth (e) of my comb are broken.
72. We went to the **top** of the mountain.
73. Do not keep the top (s) off the bottle.
74. He is at the top (e) of his class.

75. The driver gave the horse a **touch** with the whip.
76. Wool is as soft to the touch (e) as silk.
77. We saw a very touching (e) play last night.
78. London is the chief **town** in England.
79. He said that his **trade** was shoe-making.
80. Australia does little trade (e) with Iceland.
81. We got into the **train** at the nearest station.
82. The long train (e) of automobiles came to a stop.
83. He got his business training (e) in his father's office.
84. The company is responsible for the **transport** of the goods.
85. The waiter puts a **tray** of glasses on the table.
86. There is an apple **tree** in the garden.
87. His family tree (e) is not a long one.
88. I haven't quite got the **trick** of opening the box.
89. The monkey did some tricks (e) with a ball.
90. He got the money by a trick (e) played on a friend.
91. He gave no **trouble** in the hotel.
92. She was in great trouble (s) because her baby was ill.
93. The boy is a trouble (e) to everyone.
94. His coat and **trousers** were of different material.
95. She says it is a **true** story.
96. He has been a true (e) friend to me.
97. He got the box unlocked with one **turn** of the key.
98. It is your turn (e) to make the tea.
99. They are turning (e) the house into a hospital.
100. There is a **twist** in the wire.
101. He gave his foot a twist (s) falling down the steps.
102. The newspapers gave a twist (e) to his statement.
103. That man is a twister (e) in business.

U

1. Take an **umbrella** if it is raining.
2. He put his head **under** the bed-clothing.
3. The army is *under his authority.*
4. Their losses were *under* twenty pounds.
5. The animals were kept *under observation* for some months.
6. Give me a bit of the *under* side of the meat.
7. It is hard to give a **unit** of value.
8. They made a united (e) attempt to get the door open.
9. He went **up** the steps slowly.
10. I have no desire to get *up* on a cold morning.
11. Payment will be made *up to* fifty pounds.
12. You are learning the right **use** of the words.
13. Everything has its use (e) in the right place.
14. You will be able to *make use of* them in a short time.
15. All the wood has been used (e) for the fire.

V

1. His example has great **value** for all of us.
2. The books have no value (s) on the market.
3. He is writing **verse** for amusement.
4. The first three verses (e) of the song are the best.
5. His mother was **very** angry with him.
6. I am *not very* pleased with this.
7. The liquid was in a glass **vessel** on the shelf.
8. She has a broken blood vessel (s) in her eye.
9. A policeman has a good **view** of all that goes on.
10. There is a beautiful view (s) from the window.
11. He has strange views (e) on most things.
12. She made a **violent** protest against the statement.
13. The sound of a **voice** came to my ears.
14. She has a voice (s) which has been well-trained.

W

1. The carriage was **waiting** at the station for us.
2. Three servants were waiting (e) at the table.
3. We got tired of *waiting* after a time.
4. We went for a long **walk** in the country.
5. There is a beautiful walk (e) near here.
6. He has a rolling walk (e) like a sailor.
7. They are building a **wall** round the garden.
8. A great **war** was started in 1939.
9. The angry brothers had a war (e) of words.
10. The sea is quite **warm** enough for a swim.
11. He gave me a warm (e) handshake.
12. Give your hands a **wash** before meals.
13. The linen went to the wash (e) this morning.
14. The painters are putting a new wash (e) on the walls.
15. We send the washing (e) on Monday.
16. Put all the **waste** into the dust-box.
17. It is a great waste (e) to get so much food.
18. Arabia is chiefly a waste (e) of sand.
19. The man is a waster (s) like his brother.
20. What is the time by your **watch** please?
21. The dog will keep watch (e) round the house.
22. I gave her a drink of **water** before she went.
23. A sound **wave** is slower than a light wave.
24. A great wave (s) came over the sea front.
25. The woman put a wave (e) in her hair.
26. He sent me away with a wave (e) of his hand.
27. Records made of **wax** are readily broken.
28. It is a long **way** to Tipperary.
29. This is the best way (e) to make the bed.
30. American ways (e) are not the same as our ways.
31. It is a good thing in some ways (e) that she is dead.
32. We had beautiful **weather** last summer.

33. The family goes to the sea for a **week** every year.
34. What is the **weight** of the parcel ?
35. He put the weights (e) on the scales.
36. It is a great weight (e) on my mind.
37. His opinion is of no more weight (e) than his word.
38. The engine went **well** for a year.
39. I am quite *well* again now.
40. There is a warm **west** wind today.
41. We were two miles *west* of the town.
42. Hollywood is in *the west* of America.
43. Put your **wet** coat before the fire.
44. There is the mark of a **wheel** on the road.
45. My question was " **When** will you be ready ? "
46. She has no idea *when* she is going.
47. There are days *when* he is in great pain.
48. She said to me, " **Where** are you going ? "
49. I have no idea *where* she is living.
50. I sent her *where* she would be taken care of.
51. He came into the room **while** she was sleeping.
52. He was using his **whip** on the horse in a cruel way.
53. The policeman put the **whistle** to his lips.
54. The engine gave a long whistle (e) before going out of the station.
55. The table-cloth was as **white** as snow.
56. I have no *white* in my paint-box.
57. The judge said, " **Who** is that man ? "
58. That is the woman *who* was so kind to me.
59. She said again, " **Why** did you do that ? "
60. He will not say why he is angry.
61. There is a new **wide** road for automobiles.
62. A man with a wide (e) outlook is needed in the village.
63. She says that she **will** come tomorrow.
64. An east **wind** is the coldest.
65. She was looking out of the **window** to see if he was coming.
66. England gets most of her **wine** from France.
67. The bird got a **wing** fixed in the net.
68. The airplane's wing (e) was broken by the fall.
69. My room was in the left wing (e) of the house.
70. We had a very cold **winter** last year.
71. The bell is not working because the **wire** has been broken.
72. The judge made a **wise** decision.
73. I will come **with** you.
74. He is a person *with* some interesting ideas.
75. It is harder for a **woman** to get work than for a man.
76. I will put some more **wood** on the fire.
77. There is a thick wood (e) at the top of the slope.
78. The sheep have had their **wool** cut off.
79. I have no more wool (s) for the socks I am making.
80. Every Basic **word** is necessary.
81. We have his word (e) that he will get the money.
82. It seemed to us that the wording (e) of the letter was strange.
83. He does **work** for the society.
84. She said that her work (s) was teaching music.
85. He has all the works (e) of Tagore in his library.
86. The machine is working (e) very well.
87. He is the manager of an iron-*works* in Calcutta.
88. The bird is pulling a **worm** out of the grass.
89. He had a bad **wound** in the leg.
90. He was reading the **writing** on the wall.
91. There is some good writing (e) in the book.
92. I am *writing* another book.
93. She has got a **wrong** idea about it.
94. He was very wrong (e) to make a false statement.
95. Everything seemed to *go wrong* today.

Y

1. Every **year** has twelve months.
2. An egg is **yellow** in the middle.
3. It is hard to get the right *yellow* for a room.
4. Did he say no or **yes** to your question ?
5. I was reading the book **yesterday** and today.
6. What are **you** looking at ?
7. It is not hard to be happy when *you* are well-off.
8. When she was **young** she was beautiful.
9. He has been teaching *the young* for a number of years.

THE 250 IDIOMS

Acts

(10 GROUPS OF 5)

COME

1. The governments will *come to an agreement* about the taxes.
2. The train will *come to a stop* at the station.
3. Strange facts will *come to light.*
4. A newspaper man *came across* some private papers under the seat.
5. How did this *come about?*

GET

1. He had no money because he *got a book out* last year.
2. His friends said they would *get a play up* for him.
3. They did not *get the letter off* before he was put out of his house.
4. He *got into bad ways* through drink.
5. He *got out of doing* any more work.

GIVE

1. Mothers *give birth to* babies.
2. She *gave her word* to the family that she would take care of the little boy.
3. The wall *gave back* the sound (light).
4. They did not *give up* hope till the news was certain.
5. Newspapers are *given to* printing false statements.

GO

1. The colour of the walls did not *go with* my dress.
2. An old man in the front had *gone to sleep.*
3. Something *went off* with a loud noise.
4. The light *went out* in the middle of my talk.
5. I am *going to make* a protest to the gas company.

HAVE

1. I *had a talk with* him this morning.
2. His arguments *had no effect on* me.
3. Our thoughts *have no existence* outside our heads.
4. They *have to go into* such questions because of their interesting history.
5. I will *have nothing to do with* foolish discussions.

KEEP

1. The gold trouble *kept* the government *in.*
2. They *kept* the danger *off* as long as possible.
3. We *kept* the manager *on* till everyone was out of work.
4. He *kept* his interest *up* all through the winter.
5. I *kept up with* the changes in public opinion, and took his place.

LET

1. There was a great noise when she *let off* the gun.
2. She will not *let us into her secret.*
3. She had been *letting out* the skirt, because it was getting tight.
4. A good man would not *let* his friends *down.*
5. She has now *let her house* to a friend.

MAKE

1. He *made up a story* which was clearly false.
2. It was not hard to *make out* the sense of his words.
3. He had *made* the material *into* trousers, in error.
4. She *made much* (*little*) *of* it.
5. It is unkind to *make sport of* persons dressed in a strange way.

PUT

1. A common way of *putting* an idea (suggestion) *across* is by advertisement.
2. He *put up* an argument (fight) when the trainer said the horse had been poisoned.
3. He *put* the undertaking (business) *through* before he went away.
4. They *put* the discussion (talk, meeting) *off* till the morning.
5. The chances are generally against you if you *put* money *on* a horse (event).

TAKE

1. He *took up* the question (painting) with great interest.
2. He did not *take into account* all the details.
3. The facts were *taken in the wrong way.*
4. We *took him for* an expert.
5. The news *took us by surprise.*

Directions

(8 GROUPS OF 10)

AT

1. The men are *at war* (*work, play, rest*).
2. They were happy *at first* (*last*).
3. They were *at a great distance* from their country.
4. They did not go to bed *at night.*
5. *At times* they were covered with small insects.
6. There was some *surprise at* their desire to get back.
7. There were *at least* (*most*) 1000 persons at the station.
8. They had the interests of their country *at heart.*
9. They were *bad at* (*good at, quick at, slow at, expert at, working at*) languages.
10. They are *looking at* (*pointing at, laughing at, firing at*) the camera-men.

BY

1. Robinson Crusoe was on an island *by himself.*
2. I had to make him go away *by force.*
3. I was working there *by night* (*day*).
4. I had come across some coal on the island *by chance.*
5. *By the way,* have you ever been down a coal mine?
6. No smoking, *by order.*
7. A young miner got the Basic words *by heart* in less than a week.
8. He got the word order into his head *by* slow *degrees.*
9. *Little by little* (*bit by bit, day by day*), he got expert at the special uses.
10. He is coming here at 4, *by this clock.*

FOR

1. He has no *regret for* his acts.
2. *For example,* he was cruel to his sister.
3. He was *responsible for* her death.
4. He went away *for this reason.*
5. He kept away *for fear of* the law.
6. He will go to prison *for the first* (*second*) *time.*
7. He will be there *for* a long time.
8. There is no *cause for* protest.
9. Every judge would say the same thing, *word for word.*
10. Men are like animals, *but for* their brains.

IN

1. The judge said that the prisoner was *in the right* (*wrong*).
2. He took a tin tray *in exchange for* his picture.
3. The picture itself was done *in metal* (*wood*).
4. The head is turned *in a strange way.*
5. Strange things are done *in the name of* art.
6. The picture was damaged yesterday *in a smash.*
7. The lift was *in motion* when he got out.
8. It will be *in operation* (*use*) again today.
9. He gave the facts *in answer to* a question.
10. Basic is a very good system *in fact* (and *in theory*).

OF

1. Do not go *out of* the room so quickly.
2. You were *talking of* writing a book of general knowledge.
3. I am *full of* good ideas.
4. These facts may be *of use to* you.
5. Clothing *made of* wool is best in a cold country.
6. The Englishman's *love* (*care, control, grip*) *of* animals is surprising.
7. *Wars of religion* were common in the past.
8. In the future, we may be *conscious of* events at a distance.
9. Basic is the best system *because of* its simple rules.
10. That was very *kind of* you; and your last point is a good example of advertisement.

ON

1. The *light* (*water, gas*) is now *on.*
2. The pictures are *on view.*
3. I came *on purpose* to see them.
4. This design is *on a great* (*small*) *scale.*
5. I have a friend *on the committee.*
6. He is an *expert on* old prints.
7. He has gone *on a journey* to the East to get some more.
8. The *profit* (*loss, interest*) *on* his business is chiefly through insurance.
9. Look! The house is *on fire!*
10. Let us go (*farther*) *on.*

TO

1. That music is not *to my taste.*
2. They are *dancing to bad music.*
3. The question is not *open to argument.*
4. No, they have 2 machines *face to face* (*back to back*).
5. Your answer is not *to the point.*
6. *To my surprise* and *regret,* it is still going on.
7. Bad music is *dear to* the public.
8. The chances are 10 *to* 1 that it will be better in the future.
9. Most of us are slow to get *used to* new forms of art.
10. I was *able to make* this use clear earlier (p. 128).

UP

1. At school, *dressing up* was one of my greatest pleasures.
2. Now, it is hard even to get my covercoat *buttoned up.*
3. In a cold country, all one's force is *used up* in the attempt to keep warm.
4. Bread has to be *cut* (*broken*) *up* for the birds.
5. Even if your house is *shut* (*locked*) *up,* the rain may get in.
6. Yesterday there was ice in the bath and the drains got *stopped up.*
7. Get the pipes *fixed up* again before the spring!
8. The wet places on the walls will have to be *touched up.*
9. There is no need to get *worked up* about it.
10. In England, we have to *put up with* small troubles of this sort.

In addition to the idioms so far listed, there are 10 more names of operations and directions with separate idioms, making another 20. These are:—

1. The bricks will **do** *damage* to the window.
2. They *did well* (*badly*) because they had the support of the authorities.
3. The glass is **about** *to be* broken.
4. It was a foolish act, but **after** *all* they were young.
5. A girl was *looking after* the store.
6. He took a walk **down** (*up*) *the street* (*road*).
7. If you are good at fighting, that is no reason for *looking down on* lovers of peace.
8. The future will be *different* **from** the past.
9. His ideas took form *from day to day.*
10. It was clear from their strange behaviour that they were almost **off** *their heads.*
11. His experience in the war did not put him *off his balance.*
12. He said *straight* **out** what he had in mind.
13. All the details of the Basic system have been *worked out.*
14. When the page is *turned* **over,** you will see another list.
15. You will get the words into your head if you *say them over* frequently.
16. When a war is *over* education gets another chance.
17. Being **under** *fire* makes learning harder.
18. The idea was *under discussion* for a long time.
19. A simple system has *weight* **with** the education experts.
20. There is no need to be *angry* (*pleased*) *with* slow learners.

WITH 'OPERATIONS'

1. To some it seems *as if* there is very little hope of change in language teaching.
2. *As to* (*for*) *that* view, it is natural but probably false.
3. Such questions are not *at* **all** interesting to the normal man.

4, 5. He and his friends are happy *all day* (*night*) talking to *one* **another** about business.

6, 7. **That** *is to say,* they are better at making money than at forming theories; though **here** *and there* a man with money may have respect for someone who has ideas about language.

8, 9. But, talking generally, it is *as true as* (*truer than*) **ever** that **there** *is* little in common between them.

10, 11. **So** *as to* get language taken seriously **by** governments, schools, *and so on*, some new system is necessary.

12, 13. *So that* Basic may be *the* **very** *thing* for the purpose.

WITH GENERAL NAMES

14. The hole was produced by an acid **acting** *on* the material.

15, 16. *In* **addition** *to this*, the colour was taken out, which was sad because the coat had been sent *on* **approval.**

17, 18. The story is that a young woman made *an* **attack** *on her lover* with acid *in the* **belief** *that* he had been false to her.

19, 20, 21. The police had no *belief in* his story till they saw that his coat was *in* **bits** (had come *to bits*).

22. The woman was let off *on* **condition** *that* she got married to the man.

23. He got a new coat *on* **credit.**

24, 25. But it was *to his credit* that he had no **designs** *on her money*.

26, 27, 28, 29, 30. This story is given *in* **detail** because it is an example of how, *in the* **end,** even *in* **front** *of* one's lover, *acting on* **impulse** is sometimes not *in one's* **interests.**

31. If you are *at a* **loss** for something to do, why not go to Chicago ?

32. In a short time you will probably be *making* **love** *to* the daughter of a gunman.

33, 34. Then I will be able to put up a stone *in* **memory** *of* you, with a beautiful design I *have in* **mind.**

35. This *puts me in mind of* another friend who came to a bad end.

36. I *have a* (*good*) *mind to* make a book about him.

37. He *had a* **name** *for* keeping on the right side of the law.

38, 39. Some business men *took* **note** *of* this fact when their accounts were not quite *in* **order.**

40, 41. *In* **part** because he was their friend, and *in part* because he saw a chance of profit, he said he would *take part in* the organization of their company.

42, 43, 44. A meeting *took* **place** at which the public took a different **point** *of view* from the controlling body about the accounts *in* **question.**

45, 46. What story the other men gave is not *on* **record,** but *at any* **rate** they went free and my friend was sent to prison.

47, 48. While in prison he made little ships *to* **scale,** which were much *in* **request.**

49, 50, 51. One day he was walking *in* **step** *with* the other prisoners, **side** *by side* with one of his new friends, when one of the prison watchmen *took him on one side*.

52, 53, 54. " I am going to *put a* **stop** *to* this talking," he said, and *in* **support** *of* this statement he gave him a blow on the face, which was not *in* (*very*) *good* **taste.**

55, 56, 57. *In* **time,** the wound became serious, and he was *out of* (not *in*) **touch** *with* a good medical man, so it was not long before he, *in his* **turn,** was taken dead from the prison.

58, 59, 60, 61. *In* **view** *of* these sad experiences, if you have *a* **voice** *in* the business of your friends, don't let them *give* **way** *to* bad impulses, or they may get *in the way of* the law.

62, 63, 64. I had this story *by* **word** *of mouth* from my friend at his death, and *to keep my word* to him, I am now **working** *on* a book about crime and punishment.

WITH PICTURED NAMES

65, 66. They put their boxes in the train *at right* **angles** *to* one another, and sent them '**carriage** *forward* '.

67. The man on the train said he would *keep an* **eye** *on* them.

68, 69, 70. The camera-man *had an eye for* form, but he *hadn't the* **face** *to* say that she was *making a face*.

71, 72, 73, 74. He went to the mountains *on* **foot,** *on the one* **hand ;** she, *on the other hand*, went by train, though her knowledge of the country was *at first* (second) *hand*.

75, 76. When they got there, she *took in hand* the cooking operations, and he went to get some fish, but his fishing-line was *in* **knots.**

77. After a time this *got on his* **nerves.**

78, 79. Resting in the shade of a tree which had *taken* **root** near the river, he let his memory go back to his days *at* **school.**

80, 81, 82. These flowers will have *gone to* **seed** before I get up from here, he said to himself, unconscious of what might be *in* **store** *for* him from the woman *on* **watch** by the fire.

WITH NAMES OF QUALITIES

83, 84. *Make* **certain** before you get married that you have something *in* **common.**

85, 86. Everything is **dependent** *on* his comfort, so be **fertile** *in* bright ideas.

87, 88. *Do your* **best** to *get the better of* bad humour.

89. Do not let your **good**-*mornings* (*days, nights*) become automatic.

90, 91. It is **hard** *on* a man if he *no* **longer** has any peace because he is married.

92, 93, 94. The days may *go* **past** quickly enough *at* **present** and everything may seem *all* **right.**

95, 96. Though two persons do not get **tired** *of* one another **straight** *away*, they may later.

97, 98. But it is clear from watching the happy faces of animals *with* **young** that my worst fears may not *come* **true.**

WITH OPPOSITES

99, 100. Is this a record ? I am 100 *years* **old** and have not ever been *the* **worse** *for drink*.

BASIC ENGLISH

OPERATIONS 100 ETC.

COME GET GIVE GO KEEP LET MAKE PUT SEEM TAKE BE DO HAVE SAY SEE SEND MAY WILL ABOUT ACROSS AFTER AGAINST AMONG AT BEFORE BETWEEN BY DOWN FROM IN OFF ON OVER THROUGH TO UNDER UP WITH AS FOR OF TILL THAN A THE ALL ANY EVERY NO OTHER SOME SUCH THAT THIS I HE YOU WHO AND BECAUSE BUT OR IF THOUGH WHILE HOW WHEN WHERE WHY AGAIN EVER FAR FORWARD HERE NEAR NOW OUT STILL THEN THERE TOGETHER WELL ALMOST ENOUGH EVEN LITTLE MUCH NOT ONLY QUITE SO VERY TOMORROW YESTERDAY NORTH SOUTH EAST WEST PLEASE YES

THINGS

400 General

ACCOUNT ACT ADDITION ADJUSTMENT ADVERTISEMENT AGREEMENT AIR AMOUNT AMUSEMENT ANIMAL ANSWER APPARATUS APPROVAL ARGUMENT ART ATTACK ATTEMPT ATTENTION ATTRACTION AUTHORITY BACK BALANCE BASE BEHAVIOUR BELIEF BIRTH BIT BITE BLOOD BLOW BODY BRASS BREAD BREATH BROTHER BUILDING BURN BURST BUSINESS BUTTER CANVAS CARE CAUSE CHALK CHANCE CHANGE CLOTH COAL COLOUR COMFORT COMMITTEE COMPANY COMPARISON COMPETITION CONDITION CONNECTION CONTROL COOK COPPER COPY CORK COTTON COUGH COUNTRY COVER CRACK CREDIT CRIME CRUSH CRY CURRENT CURVE DAMAGE DANGER DAUGHTER DAY DEATH DEBT DECISION DEGREE DESIGN DESIRE DESTRUCTION DETAIL DEVELOPMENT DIGESTION DIRECTION DISCOVERY DISCUSSION DISEASE DISGUST DISTANCE DISTRIBUTION DIVISION DOUBT DRINK DRIVING DUST EARTH EDGE

EDUCATION EFFECT END ERROR EVENT EXAMPLE EXCHANGE EXISTENCE EXPANSION EXPERIENCE EXPERT FACT FALL FAMILY FATHER FEAR FEELING FICTION FIELD FIGHT FIRE FLAME FLIGHT FLOWER FOLD FOOD FORCE FORM FRIEND FRONT FRUIT GLASS GOLD GOVERNMENT GRAIN GRASS GRIP GROUP GROWTH GUIDE HARBOUR HARMONY HATE HEARING HEAT HELP HISTORY HOLE HOPE HOUR HUMOUR ICE IDEA IMPULSE INCREASE INDUSTRY INK INSECT INSTRUMENT INSURANCE INTEREST INVENTION IRON JELLY JOIN JOURNEY JUDGE JUMP KICK KISS KNOWLEDGE LAND LANGUAGE LAUGH LAW LEAD LEARNING LEATHER LETTER LEVEL LIFT LIGHT LIMIT LINEN LIQUID LIST LOOK LOSS LOVE MACHINE MAN MANAGER MARK MARKET MASS MEAL MEASURE MEAT MEETING MEMORY

METAL MIDDLE MILK MIND MINE MINUTE MIST MONEY MONTH MORNING MOTHER MOTION MOUNTAIN MOVE MUSIC NAME NATION NEED NEWS NIGHT NOISE NOTE NUMBER OBSERVATION OFFER OIL OPERATION OPINION ORDER ORGANIZATION ORNAMENT OWNER PAGE PAIN PAINT PAPER PART PASTE PAYMENT PEACE PERSON PLACE PLANT PLAY PLEASURE POINT POISON POLISH PORTER POSITION POWDER POWER PRICE PRINT PROCESS PRODUCE PROFIT PROPERTY PROSE PROTEST PULL PUNISHMENT PURPOSE PUSH QUALITY QUESTION RAIN RANGE RATE RAY REACTION READING REASON RECORD REGRET RELATION RELIGION REPRESENTATIVE REQUEST RESPECT REST REWARD RHYTHM RICE RIVER ROAD ROLL ROOM RUB RULE RUN SALT SAND SCALE SCIENCE SEA SEAT SECRETARY SELECTION SELF

SENSE SERVANT SEX SHADE SHAKE SHAME SHOCK SIDE SIGN SILK SILVER SISTER SIZE SKY SLEEP SLIP SLOPE SMASH SMELL SMILE SMOKE SNEEZE SNOW SOAP SOCIETY SON SONG SORT SOUND SOUP SPACE STAGE START STATEMENT STEAM STEEL STEP STITCH STONE STOP STORY STRETCH STRUCTURE SUBSTANCE SUGAR SUGGESTION SUMMER SUPPORT SURPRISE SWIM SYSTEM TALK TASTE TAX TEACHING TENDENCY TEST THEORY THING THOUGHT THUNDER TIME TIN TOP TOUCH TRADE TRANSPORT TRICK TROUBLE TURN TWIST UNIT USE VALUE VERSE VESSEL VIEW VOICE WALK WAR WASH WASTE WATER WAVE WAX WAY WEATHER WEEK WEIGHT WIND WINE WINTER WOMAN WOOD WOOL WORD WORK WOUND WRITING YEAR

200 Pictured

ANGLE ANT APPLE ARCH ARM ARMY BABY BAG BALL BAND BASIN BASKET BATH BED BEE BELL BERRY BIRD BLADE BOARD BOAT BONE BOOK BOOT BOTTLE BOX BOY BRAIN BRAKE BRANCH BRICK BRIDGE BRUSH BUCKET BULB BUTTON CAKE CAMERA CARD CART CARRIAGE CAT CHAIN CHEESE CHEST CHIN CHURCH CIRCLE CLOCK CLOUD COAT COLLAR COMB CORD COW CUP CURTAIN CUSHION DOG DOOR DRAIN DRAWER DRESS DROP EAR EGG ENGINE EYE FACE FARM FEATHER FINGER FISH FLAG FLOOR FLY FOOT FORK FOWL FRAME GARDEN GIRL GLOVE GOAT GUN HAIR HAMMER HAND HAT HEAD HEART HOOK HORN HORSE HOSPITAL HOUSE ISLAND JEWEL KETTLE KEY

KNEE KNIFE KNOT LEAF LEG LIBRARY LINE LIP LOCK MAP MATCH MONKEY MOON MOUTH MUSCLE NAIL NECK NEEDLE NERVE NET NOSE NUT OFFICE ORANGE OVEN PARCEL PEN PENCIL PICTURE PIG PIN PIPE PLANE PLATE PLOUGH POCKET POT POTATO PRISON PUMP RAIL RAT RECEIPT RING ROD ROOF ROOT SAIL SCHOOL SCISSORS SCREW SEED SHEEP SHELF SHIP SHIRT SHOE SKIN SKIRT SNAKE SOCK SPADE SPONGE SPOON SPRING SQUARE STAMP STAR STATION STEM STICK STOCKING STOMACH STORE STREET SUN TABLE TAIL THREAD THROAT THUMB TICKET TOE TONGUE TOOTH TOWN TRAIN TRAY TREE TROUSERS UMBRELLA WALL WATCH WHEEL WHIP WHISTLE WINDOW WING WIRE WORM

QUALITIES

100 General

ABLE ACID ANGRY AUTOMATIC BEAUTIFUL BLACK BOILING BRIGHT BROKEN BROWN CHEAP CHIEF CHEMICAL CLEAN CLEAR COMMON COMPLEX CONSCIOUS CUT DEEP DEPENDENT EARLY ELASTIC ELECTRIC EQUAL FAT FERTILE FIRST FIXED FLAT FREE FREQUENT FULL GENERAL GOOD GREAT GREY HANGING HAPPY HARD HEALTHY HIGH HOLLOW IMPORTANT KIND LIKE LIVING LONG MALE MARRIED MATERIAL MEDICAL MILITARY NATURAL NECESSARY NEW NORMAL OPEN PARALLEL PAST PHYSICAL POLITICAL POOR POSSIBLE PRESENT PRIVATE PROBABLE QUICK QUIET READY RED REGULAR RESPONSIBLE RIGHT ROUND SAME SECOND SEPARATE SERIOUS SHARP SMOOTH STICKY STIFF STRAIGHT STRONG SUDDEN SWEET TALL THICK TIGHT TIRED TRUE VIOLENT WAITING WARM WET WIDE WISE YELLOW YOUNG

50 Opposites

AWAKE BAD BENT BITTER BLUE CERTAIN COLD COMPLETE CRUEL DARK DEAD DEAR DELICATE DIFFERENT DIRTY DRY FALSE FEEBLE FEMALE FOOLISH FUTURE GREEN ILL LAST LATE LEFT LOOSE LOUD LOW MIXED NARROW OLD OPPOSITE PUBLIC ROUGH SAD SAFE SECRET SHORT SHUT SIMPLE SLOW SMALL SOFT SOLID SPECIAL STRANGE THIN WHITE WRONG

NO 'VERBS'

IT IS POSSIBLE TO GET ALL THESE WORDS ON THE BACK OF A BIT OF NOTEPAPER BECAUSE THERE ARE NO 'VERBS' IN BASIC ENGLISH

A WEEK OR TWO WITH THE RULES AND THE SPECIAL RECORDS GIVES COMPLETE KNOWLEDGE OF THE SYSTEM FOR READING OR WRITING

EXAMPLES OF WORD ORDER

THE CAMERA MAN WHO MADE AN ATTEMPT TO TAKE A MOVING PICTURE OF THE SOCIETY WOMEN BEFORE THEY GOT THEIR HATS OFF DID NOT GET OFF THE SHIP TILL HE WAS QUESTIONED BY THE POLICE

WE WILL GIVE SIMPLE RULES TO YOU NOW.

RULES

ADDITION OF 'S' TO THINGS WHEN THERE IS MORE THAN ONE

ENDINGS IN 'ER,' 'ING,' 'ED' FROM 300 NAMES OF THINGS

'LY' FORMS FROM QUALITIES

DEGREE WITH 'MORE' AND 'MOST.'

QUESTIONS BY CHANGE OF ORDER, AND 'DO.'

FORM-CHANGES IN NAMES OF ACTS, AND 'THAT,' 'THIS,' 'I,' 'HE,' 'YOU,' 'WHO,' AS IN NORMAL ENGLISH

MEASURES NUMBERS DAYS, MONTHS AND THE INTERNATIONAL WORDS IN ENGLISH FORM

PART 7

THE SOUNDS AND FORMS OF BASIC ENGLISH

NOTE TO THE LEARNER

This part of the book is an account, in Basic English, of the science of Phonetics—the science of the sounds made in talking English. What you have to say is much more important, as a rule, than the way in which you say it; some small errors there are certain to be, and no-one will give much attention to them. But if, when you are talking in English, you make the sounds so badly that the sense is not clear at all, then you will be wasting your time and the time of those you are talking to. So you are here given a last chance of making certain that everything you say in Basic will be quite clear to those whose language is English, or who have a knowledge of English. If you go through all the notes and do all the tests with care, your English will be as nearly like that of the Englishman as it is necessary to make it and as it is possible to make it.

But there is another still more important reason for learning Phonetics at this stage. So far you have got a good knowledge of the 850 words of Basic English. But there are more than 850 words in the English language. There are thousands and thousands more, and a great number of these are used in the books which are produced for English readers. To get a knowledge of these you will have to go on to *Book Four*, which takes the learner on to the wider sort of English which is used in the Special Certificate examination, and to other books.

Now let us say that in your Wider English reading you come across the word *people*. It's a new word for you, and you have no idea of its sense. You take your *Basic English Dictionary* and you see that the sense of *people* is given as *persons*. So far so good. But how are you going to be able to *say* the word? It has an *e* and an *o*, but the sound which the *e* and the *o* make together is nothing like the *e* in *net* or like the *o* in *not*. The *Dictionary* does give a guide to the 'pronunciation' (sound) of every word, but in order to do so it has to make use of signs of which so far you have no knowledge. For example, *people* is put down as **pi:pl.** The sign **i:** has the same sound as the *ee* in *bee*. If therefore you are getting to get the pronunciation of new words as well as their sense from the *Dictionary*, it will be necessary for you to have a knowledge of these signs—phonetic signs as they are named. This you will do if you go through these sixteen pages with care and attention.

PART I

THE SOUNDS OF BASIC ENGLISH

The sounds of English—as of most languages—may be put into two groups, which go by degrees one into the other. In one group are the sounds in which the breath, while moving from the throat and out of the lips (or, in three examples, out of the nose), is stopped, completely or in part, somewhere on the way. These are the CONSONANT sounds. In the other group are the sounds made by the voice cords in the throat while the breath is moving through the mouth and out of the lips without being stopped anywhere. These are the VOWEL sounds.

You will not get a knowledge of the sounds of English by learning the names of the letters of the ABC; because the name of a letter is not at all times the same as the sound we make in using that letter—if it was, reading would be a very simple thing. A letter may be said in a number of different ways; and a number of different letters may be said in the same way. However, though the names of the letters are of little use in getting the sounds of the letters, the names of the sounds are of much use; and with these names we will make our start.

Every sound is the outcome of some special way of using the mouth parts, and every sound may be named by naming the parts and the operations by which it is produced. To anyone with a knowledge of phonetics, the name 'voiced lip-lip stop' gives clearly the idea of the sound of the letter *b* in the word *book*. But a shorter and simpler way of naming that sound—and a way which will be clear to everyone even without a knowledge of phonetics—is to make the sound itself; and in writing, to put down the sign which is the name of the sound. The sign for the 'voiced lip-lip stop' is **b**. To the eye, this is the same as the second letter of the ABC; but it is NOT that letter: it is the sign for the sound which is produced by the conditions 'voiced lip-lip stop.' When you are reading phonetic signs you are not naming letters—you are naming sounds. When naming the fifth letter of the ABC you make quite a different sound from that made when reading the phonetic sign **e**. The fifth letter of the ABC may be sounded in a number of different ways in different words; but the phonetic sign **e** has only one sound, and that is e. (In this book the phonetic signs will be in thick print.)

Sometimes one sign is different from another only in some small detail which only a very sharp eye will see; and one sound may be different from another only in some small detail which will be noted by only a very sharp ear. In the same way in which the eye becomes sharper in noting how one sign is different from another which is very like, so will the ear become more sharply conscious of the different values of two very like sounds.

THE PHONETIC SIGNS

Of the 26 letters of the English ABC, 22 are used as phonetic signs. And the four which are not used—*c*, *q*, *x*, *y*—may be said to be not truly needed even in normal writing. Frequently *s* might take the place of *c* (*acid*, *face*), and where *s* would not do, *k* would (*cold*, *fact*); *q* is joined with *u* to make a complex sound

which might be put down as *kw* (*quite*) ; *x* is only a way of writing *ks* or *gz* (*wax*, *example*) , and *y* might well give place to *i* (*baby*).

Of the 22 letters which are used as phonetic signs, 20 have the same sounds as phonetic signs which they have as letters the sounds—not the names—of *a b d e f g h i k l m n p r s t u v w z* undergo no change when they become phonetic signs, though it is true that as letters they may have more than one sound, or no sound at all !

The letter *e*, for example, has five different sounds in the five words ***red***, ***key***, ***cruel***, ***nerve***, ***design***, and no sound at all in ***have***. The letter *s* has one sound in *sail*, another in ***nose***, another in ***sugar***, and another again in ***pleasure***. On the other hand, the sound of *e* in *key* may be seen as *ee* in *bee*, as *ea* in *seat*, as *ie* in ***field***, as *ei* in *receipt*, and as *i* in *machine* ; and the sound of *e* in *nerve* may be seen as *u* in *burn*, *i* in *bird*, and *o* in *word*. The *s* in *nose* is sounded like the *z* in *sneeze*, the *s* in *sugar* like the *sh* in *shut*, the *s* in *pleasure* like the *g* in *change*.

This uncertain relation between the letters and their sounds—which at times makes of the letters not true signs but false signs—is brushed away when the letters are turned into phonetic signs : every phonetic sign has one sound and no other ; and for every separate sound there is a separate sign. The sign **e** is sounded like the *e* in *red*, and in no other way ; and the sign **s** is sounded like the *s* in *sail*, and in no other way. For the other sounds of *e* and *s*, other signs are used. There are 30 different signs in all, and 20 of the 22 which are the same as letters have the sound which they most commonly have as letters.

In addition to these 22 sounds are 8 which may have a ' strange ' look. But three of the strangest are simply the printer's making use of what he has—**ɔ ə ʌ** are only the letters c e v turned upside down : **ʃ**, **ð** are old forms of English letters : **ʒ** is the common writing form for *z* : **θ** is Greek. **ŋ** is the only truly 'strange' sign, being an *n* with the addition of a tail.

The **:** after a vowel gives it a little different quality which is commonly said to make it ' long.'

In phonetic writing the sign of weight **'** is put before the part of the word which gets the greatest force of the voice.

HOW THE SIGNS ARE GROUPED

CONSONANTS

6 stopped	p b t d k g
3 nose	m n ŋ
8 brushed	f v s z ʃ ʒ θ ð
2 liquid	l r
3 starting . .	h j w

VOWELS

4 front	iː i e a
5 back	uː u ɔː ɔ aː
3 middle	ə əː ʌ
5 complex	ei ai au ou ɔi

THE CONSONANTS

The 22 consonant sounds are almost all grouped in two's, of which one is a BREATH CONSONANT—that is, it has only the sound of the breath itself ; and the other is a VOICED CONSONANT—that is, it has, in addition to the noise of the breath, the sound made by the voice cords in the throat. A good way to be certain that a breath consonant is different from its voiced brother is to say them one after the other with your fingers in your ears : when you say the breath consonant there is only the soft noise of the breath in your mouth, but with the voiced consonant your head is full of the sound.

The groups of two are different from one another because of the different ways and places of stopping the breath.

THE VOWELS

For the vowels, as has been said, the breath goes through the mouth without being stopped anywhere on its way. But the mouth may be in one or another form—fixed as for a smile, or for a whistle , wide open, or almost shut ; the tongue flat, or arched ; the muscles hard, or soft. All these things have an effect on the sort of sound produced, but for the learner probably the most important is the hard or soft condition of the muscles, and for this reason : there are a number of vowel sounds which MAY be said rightly with hard muscles, but which, if the muscles are soft, IT WILL NOT BE POSSIBLE TO SAY WRONG, because the right tongue position and the right mouth opening will come naturally if the muscles are soft.

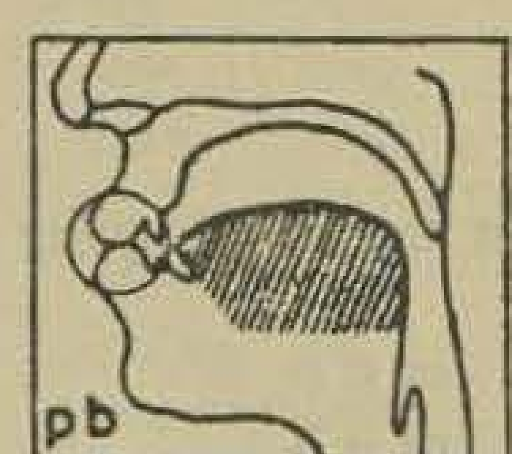
Of the 17 vowel sounds, 12 are simple, and five are complex. A complex vowel is one in which, while the air is going through the mouth, there is a change in the position of one of the parts.

HOW THE SOUNDS ARE MADE

Here are the sounds, with small pictures of the positions of the mouth parts with which they are produced, and a note to make things clear. The best way of learning them is to give a good look at the picture, see what the note says, and then make the sound. Though it is true that some of these sounds may be said rightly with the parts in somewhat different positions from those in the pictures, the important thing for the learner is that with the parts in the positions as in the pictures IT WILL NOT BE POSSIBLE TO SAY THEM WRONG. In the consonants the learner is to give special attention to the part inside the circle.

THE SIX STOPPED CONSONANTS are the sounds in which the breath is completely stopped somewhere on its way.

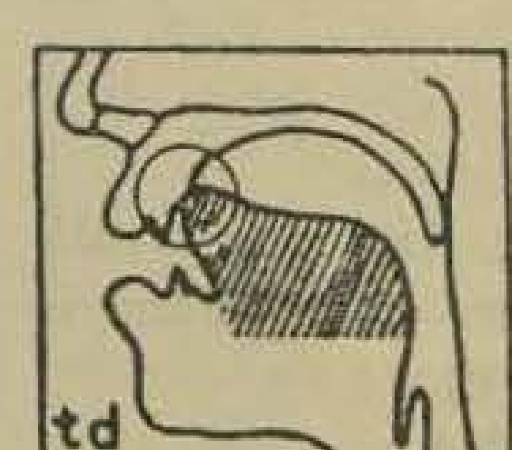
p b



The breath is stopped by the lips, which are loosely shut. **p** is the sound caused by opening the lips and letting out the air which was kept back : **b** is this same sound with the addition of the sound made by the voice cords in the throat.

p b p b p b p b
p p p p b b b b

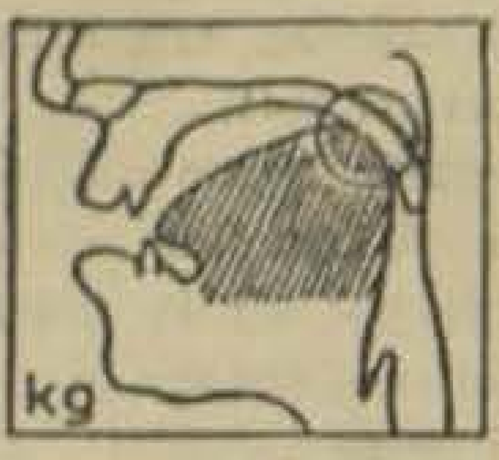
t d



The breath is stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth over the teeth. **t** is the sound caused by suddenly taking the tongue away, letting out the air which was kept back : **d** is this same sound with the addition of the sound made by the voice cords in the throat.

t d t d t d t d
t t t t d d d d

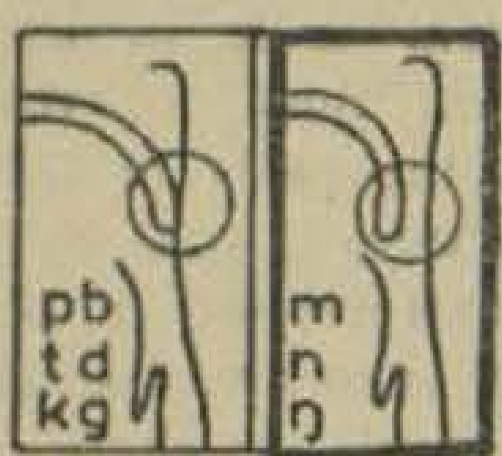
k g



The breath is stopped by the back part of the tongue touching the roof of the mouth. **k** is the sound caused by suddenly taking the tongue away, letting out the air which was kept back; **g** is this same sound with the addition of the sound made by the voice cords in the throat.

k g k g k g k g
k k k k g g g g
p t k b d g p t k b d g
k t p g d b k t p g d b

THE THREE NOSE CONSONANTS have the same tongue positions as the stopped consonants; but the air, in place of coming out through the mouth, comes out through the nose; because in these three sounds, the 'little tongue' which in all the other sounds keeps the way through the nose shut, is hanging loosely down, and the way is open. These sounds are all voiced.



m

Lips as for **p b**, but the breath going through the nose.

m b p m b p m b p
m p b m p b m p b

It will be noted that between **m** and **p** the sound is broken, but not between **m** and **b**.

n

Tongue as for **t d**, but with the breath going through the nose.

n d t n d t n d t
n t d n t d n t d

Between **n** and **t** the sound is broken, but not between **n** and **d**.

ŋ

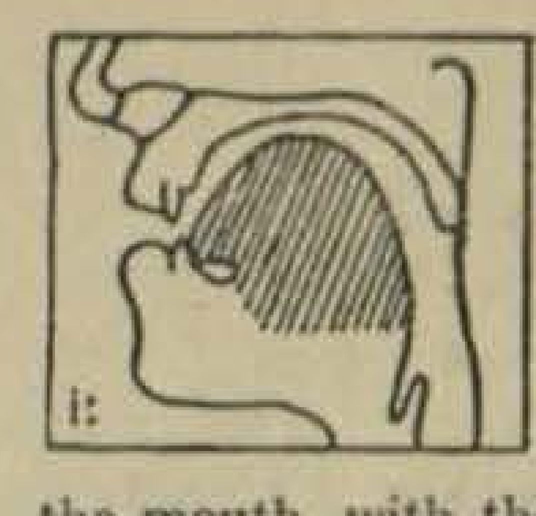
Tongue as for **k g**, but the breath going through the nose. (This sound is never the start of a word).

k g ŋ k g ŋ k g ŋ

These three and all the rest of the sounds are different from the stopped sounds in this way: their sound may be kept up as long as you have breath, but the stopped sounds are ended as quickly as started.

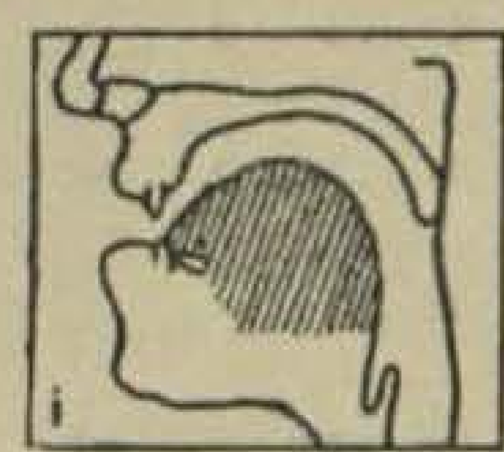
THE FOUR FRONT VOWELS

i:



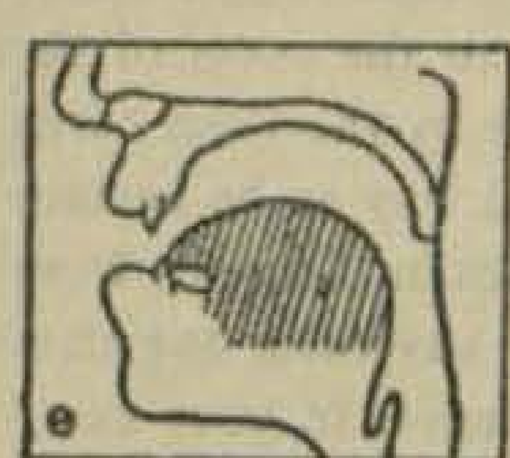
Put a bright smile on your face, with the teeth almost shut. Your tongue will be in a position arched forward to the front part of the roof of the mouth, with the point of the tongue against the back of the lower teeth or even lower; and the tongue muscles will be hard. Now if, with the use of the voice cords in the throat, you make a sound, it will be the sound of the vowel in *me* for which the sign is **i:**.

i



If you let the tongue muscles get soft, they will not be able to keep the arch so high, so the space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth will be wider; and the sound which you make now will be the sound of the vowel in *bit*, for which the sign is **i**. With a looking-glass in your hand you will be able to see the change in the position of the tongue in going from **i:** and **i**.

e



With the muscles still soft, get the mouth open a little wider—enough to put the end of a pencil between your teeth. Now, with the arch of the tongue lower, the space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth is even wider, and the sound which comes out will be the sound of the vowel in *red*, for which the sign is **e**.

a



If, still smiling, you get your mouth open even wider—enough to get your thumb between your teeth—with the tongue almost flat and the point still forward, you will make the sound of the vowel in *hat*, for which the sign is **a**.

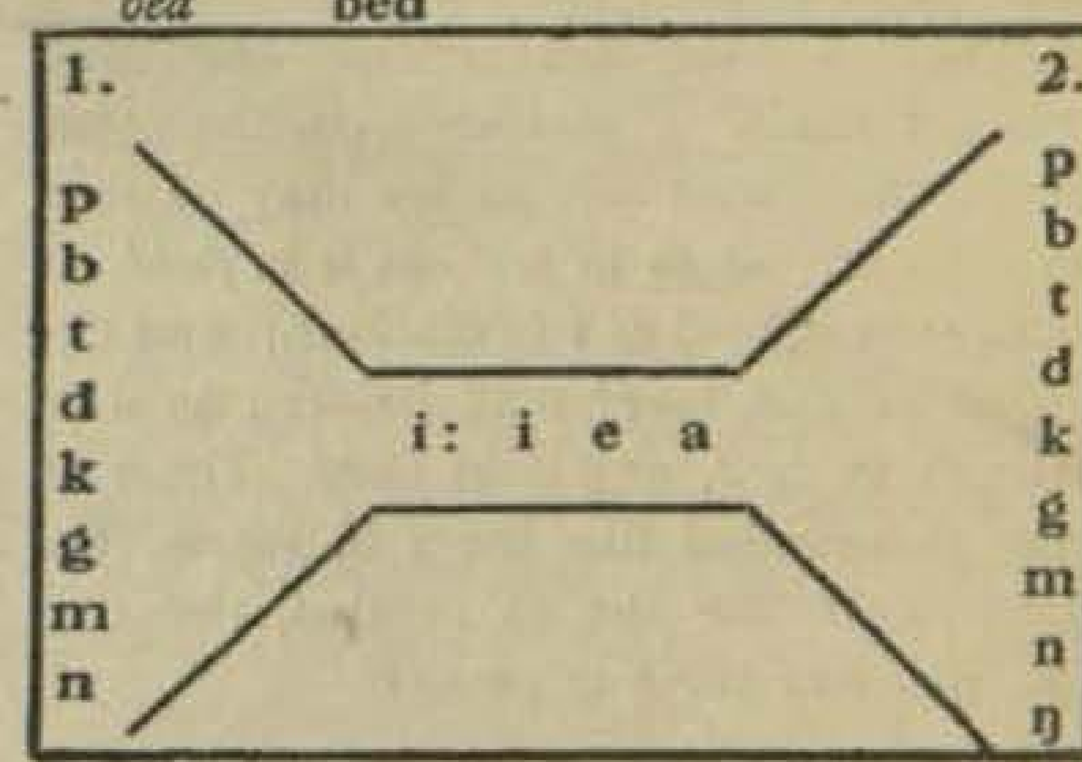
These four are the front vowels—that is, in all of these sounds, the tongue is more or less arched forward.

i: i i: i i: i i: i
e a e a e a e a
i: i e a i: i e a
i: i e a e i i:

LIST I

Words using the sounds given so far.

be	**bi:**	*pen*	**pen**
bee	**bi:**	*bent*	**bent**
deep	**di:p**	*debt*	**det**
keep	**ki:p**	*egg*	**eg**
knee	**ni:**	*dead*	**ded**
need	**ni:d**	*ink*	**iŋk**
key	**ki:**	*at*	**at**
meat	**mi:t**	*cat*	**kat**
bit	**bit**	*bad*	**bad**
pig	**pig**	*back*	**bak**
pin	**pin**	*bag*	**bag**
tin	**tin**	*man*	**man**
kick	**kik**	*map*	**map**
net	**net**	*ant*	**ant**
neck	**nek**	*and*	**and**
get	**get**	*band*	**band**
bed	**bed**		



THE PHONETIC WORD-FORMER

This strange-looking word-former may be used in a number of different ways to make some hundreds of words. (Not all of these words will be Basic words).

1. Put every consonant in line 1 in front of the first vowel—as **pi: bi: ti:** and so on.

2. Do the same with every one of the other vowels.

3. Put the first vowel in front of every consonant in line 2—as **i:p i:b i:t** and so on.

4. Do the same with the other vowels.

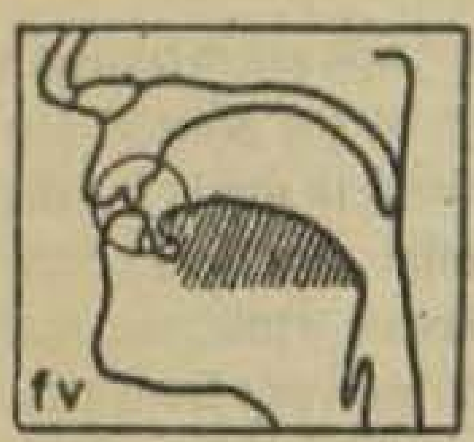
5. Put every consonant in line 1 in front of the first vowel joined to the consonants in line 2—as **pi:p pi:b pi:t pi:d pi:k pi:g pi:m pi:n pi:ŋ**, and so on with the other consonants. Then do the same with every one of the other vowels.

6. Put a consonant from line 1 before every one of the vowels joined to the consonants in line 2—as: **pi:p pip pep pap, pi:b pib peb pab, pi:t pit pet pat**, and so on down the list.

A form of play giving some amusement in addition to being good training is for one learner to make a start at forming words and go on till he makes a Basic word; then another learner does the same thing till he in turn comes to a Basic word, and so on round the group.

THE EIGHT BRUSHED CONSONANTS are the sounds made when the breath, in going through a very narrow space, is brushed past some part which is in the way.

f v

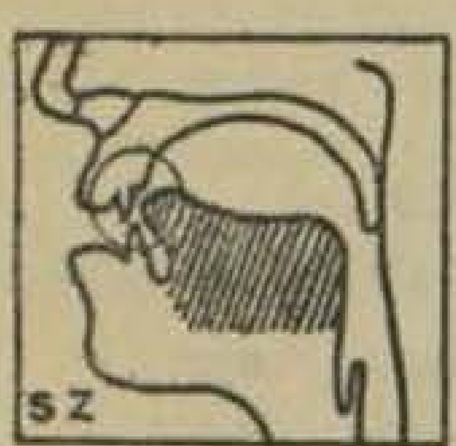


The sounds are made by sending the air out through the narrow space formed by putting the lower lip to the top teeth: **v** has voice: **f** has not.

f v f v f v f v

Keep the breath current unbroken through the 8 sounds.

s z

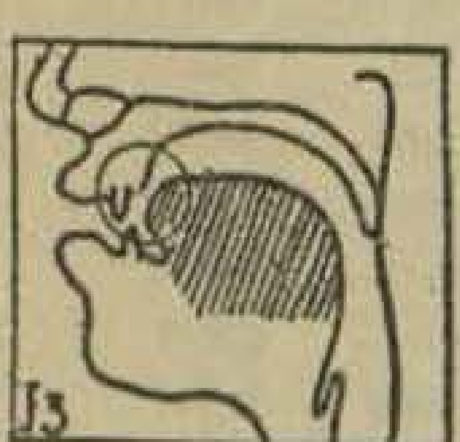


The sounds are made by sending the air through the shut teeth: the point of the tongue is almost touching the front part of the roof of the mouth: **z** has voice: **s** has not.

s z s z s z s z

Keep the breath current unbroken through the 8 sounds.

ʃ ʒ

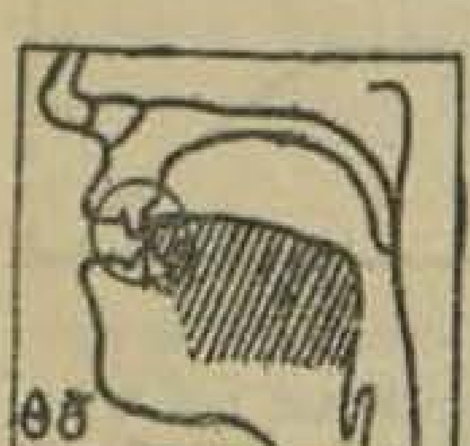


The sounds are made by the air brushing over the point of the tongue which is kept off the back of the top teeth: the teeth may be shut or a little open: before or after the back vowels the lips may be a little pushed out: **ʒ** has voice: **ʃ** has not.

ʃ ʒ ʃ ʒ ʃ ʒ ʃ ʒ

Keep the breath current unbroken through the 8 sounds.

θ ð



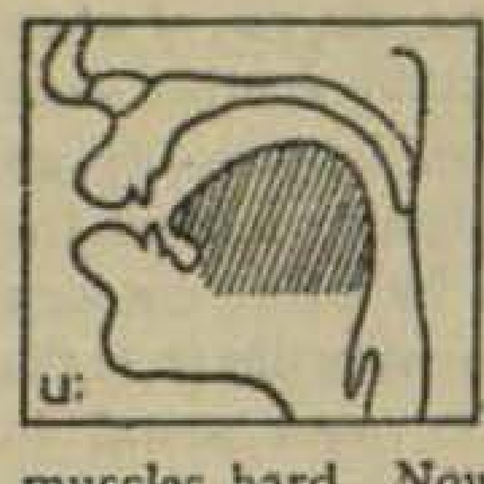
The tongue point is a little lower than for **s z**, and because the teeth are open in place of being shut, the point of the tongue may be seen. **ð** has voice: **θ** has not.

θ ð θ ð θ ð θ ð

Keep the breath current unbroken through the 8 sounds.

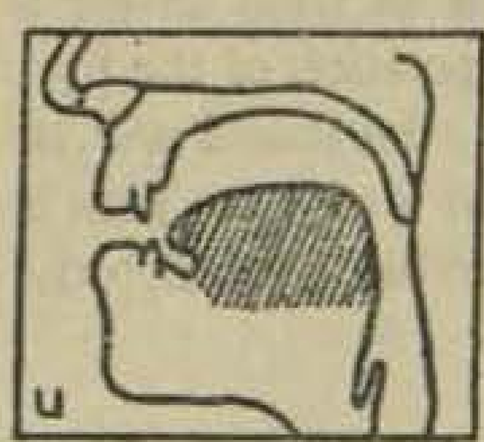
THE FIVE BACK VOWELS

u:



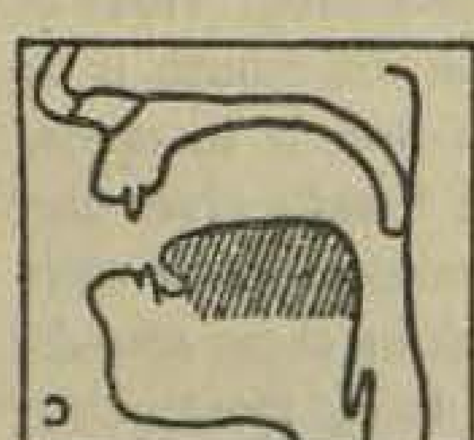
Get your lips in position for whistling—that is, well pushed out, making a small hole no greater than the end of a pencil, and with the lip muscles hard. Now the tongue is arched at the back, and the tongue point is not forward. Because of the narrow space between the tongue and the back part of the roof of the mouth, and because of the small hole through which the breath comes, the sound will be that of the vowel in *food*, for which the sign is **u:**.

u



If you make the muscles soft, the lips will not be pushed out so far, and the round hole will become a narrow crack. In addition, the back part of the tongue will be lower; so the space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth will be a little wider, and you will make the sound of the vowel in *foot*, for which the sign is **u**.

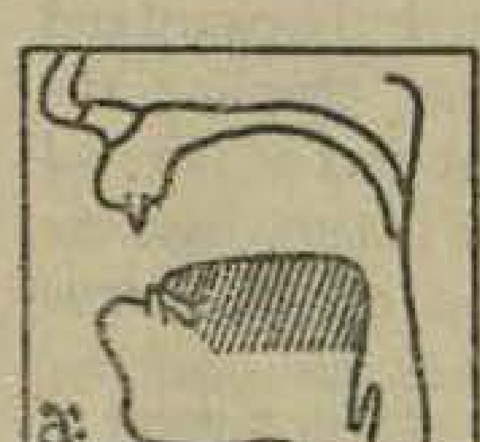
ɔ and ɔ:



Then with the muscles still soft, get the mouth open a little wider, so that the lips are forming a circle; the tongue is not seen, because it is as far back in the mouth as possible. These conditions will make the sound of the vowel in *dog*, for which the sign is **ɔ**.

In words where the letter *o* comes before the letter *r* in the same word-part, and in some words with *a*, the sound **ɔ** is made longer and with a little rounder position of the lips: for this sound the sign is **ɔ:**.

a:



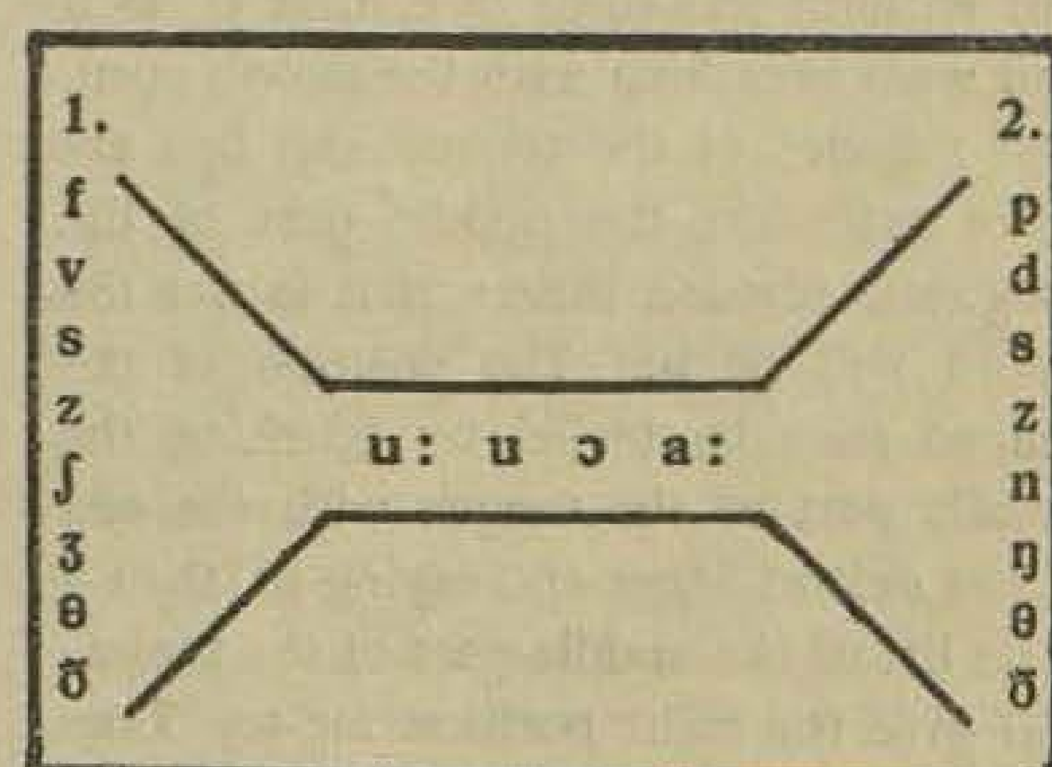
Now, with the tongue still back and quite flat, get the mouth open even wider and without the rounding of the lips. The sound will be that of the vowel in *farm*, for which the sign is **a:**.

u:	u	u:	u	u:	u	u:	u
ɔ	a:	ɔ	a:	ɔ	a:	ɔ	a:
u:	u	ɔ	a:	u:	u	ɔ	a:
i:	u:	i:	u:	i:	u:	i:	u:
i	u	i	i	u	u	i	u
e	ɔ	e	ɔ	e	ɔ	e	ɔ
a	a:	a	a:	a	a:	a	a:
i:	i	e	a	a:	ɔ	u	u:
u:	u	ɔ	a:	a	e	i	i:

LIST 2

Words using the sounds given on this page.

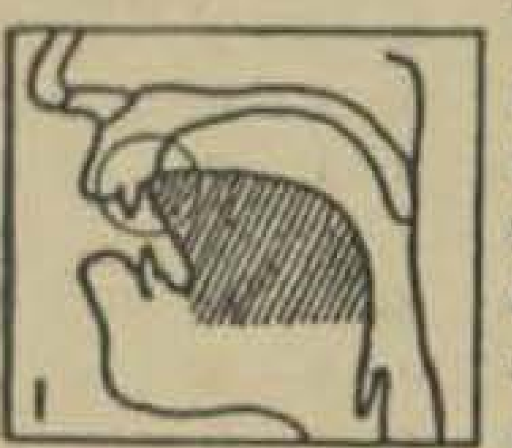
boot	bu:t	*peace*	pi:s
shoe	ʃu:	*thin*	θin
moon	mu:n	*thing*	θiŋ
to	tu:	*thick*	θik
do	du:	*sock*	sɔk
soup	su:p	*shock*	ʃɔk
put	put	*far*	fa:r[1]
push	puʃ	*farm*	fa:rm
hook	huk	*arm*	a:rm
book	buk	*part*	pa:rt
foot	fut	*are*	a:r
good	gud	*cart*	ka:rt
not	nɔt	*dark*	da:rk
pot	pɔt	*mark*	ma:rk
top	tɔp	*fat*	fat
dog	dɔg	*mass*	mas
of	ɔv	*as*	az
off	ɔf	*sad*	sad
step	step	*fact*	fakt
skin	skin	*test*	test
stiff	stif	*send*	send
kiss	kis	*stem*	stem
ship	ʃip	*thought*	θɔ:t
sheep	ʃi:p	*death*	deθ
fish	fiʃ	*tooth*	tu:θ
see	si:	*this*	ðis
seed	si:d	*then*	ðen
seem	si:m	*move*	mu:v
seat	si:t	*smooth*	smu:ð



[1] When it comes in a word in thick print, *r* is a sign which may be sounded or not, as desired—the two ways being equally right. In some parts of England *r* is never sounded before a consonant, and is sounded at the end of words only if the word coming after is started by a vowel. In America, *r* is sounded in every position, more or less fully.

THE TWO LIQUID CONSONANTS

l



The tongue point is touching the roof of the mouth in almost the same position as for **t d**, but in **l** the air comes out over the sides of the tongue. This is made clear when you say the word *little*: there is no motion at the point of the tongue between the sounds **t** and **l**, but the middle part of the tongue comes down to make an opening at the side for the breath to get out. **l** has voice.

r



In **r** the tongue is pointing in the same direction as for **l**, but its point is *not* touching the roof of the mouth at the back of the top teeth—it is kept back a little *off* that place, and the sound is caused (with the help of the voice cords in the throat) by the air going through the narrow opening so made.

(If the tongue point is turned down the sound will be **ʒ**).

li: ri: li: ri: li: ri: li: ri:
lu: ru: lu: ru: lu: ru: lu: ru:

The sound is unbroken: the lips keep in one unchanged position—the position for the vowel: all the moving is done by the tongue.

THE THREE MIDDLE VOWELS

ə:

Get the mouth open as wide as for **e** but without the smile of **e**, that is, as if you were breathing with the mouth open. The muscles of the tongue and lips are quite soft, but the middle part of the tongue is lifted a little: if it is flat the sound will be **a:**. The position of the tongue may be tested by touching the middle part of the tongue with the end of the second finger and saying **a:**, then a little lift of the middle part of the tongue will give the right position for **ə:**. Take care not to have the lips rounded and not to have the mouth open wide. In the word-part which gets the weight, almost any vowel coming before an *r* may be sounded **ə:**. This is the sound of the vowel in *bird*, *burn*, *verse*, and others. (The *r* is not generally sounded in such words).

ə

In word-parts not getting the weight, and in short words like *a*, *the*, *for*, *of* when ever they are sounded before another word the sound of the vowel is generally an unclear sound shorter than **ə:** and with the mouth even less open, for which the sign is **ə**. This sound, or one very like it, is the most frequently used vowel sound in English. Any one of the five vowels coming in a word-part which gets no weight may be sounded **ə**—it is the sound of the first *a* in *attraction*, of the second *e* in *even*, of *i* in *possible*, of *o* in *purpose*, and of *u* in *apparatus*. Take care to have the mouth only a little open and the muscles soft.

ʌ

If the mouth is open as wide as for **ɔ** but without the round position of the lips, and with loose muscles, the sound will be about half way between **ə** and **a:** This is the sound of the vowel in *but*, for which the sign is **ʌ**.

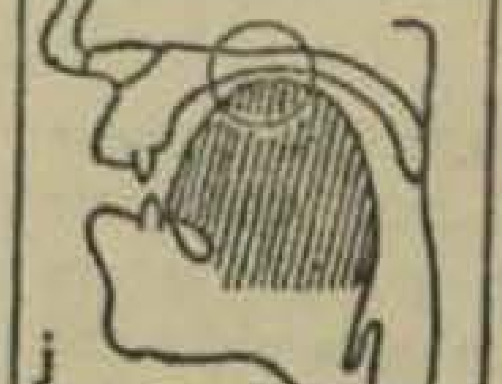
THE THREE STARTERS

Three sounds which are little more than different ways of starting vowel sounds will be given the name of STARTERS.

h

h is only the sound—almost not a sound—of the breath coming out of the mouth as it does in normal quiet breathing. There is no picture for **h** because the mouth is in position for whatever vowel is to come, and a soft push of the breath gives the **h**. In English this sound comes out with almost every **p t k**[1], making these sounds different from the **p t k** of most other languages. And for *pain*, *time*, *cold*, and such words, in place of **pein taim kould** it would be truer to the facts to put **p^{h}eint^{h}aim k^{h}ould**. It is because our desire is to keep the page from looking unnecessarily complex that we do not make use of the sign ^{h}; but it is a very important point for the learner to keep in mind.

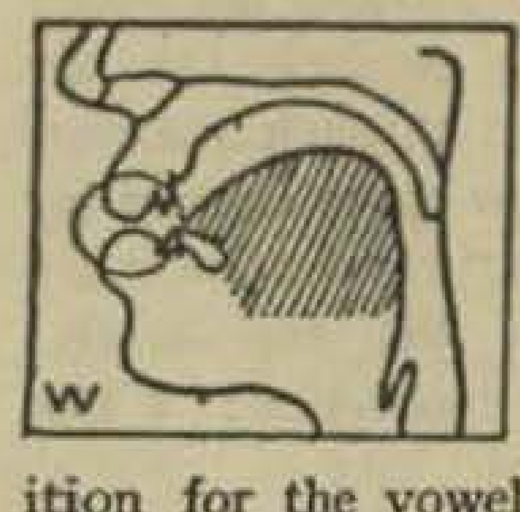
j



The tongue is in position for **i:**—that is, arched forward and almost touching the front part of the roof of the mouth, and the point of the tongue kept against the place under the back of the lower teeth. The sound is made by the voice cords in the throat while the tongue is dropping from its high arched position.

[1] We say 'almost' because this is not true when **p t k** come after **s**. In such words as *space* (**speis**) *stone* (**stoun**) *skin* (**skin**) the ^{h} is not present; and naturally, it is not present in **b d g**.

w

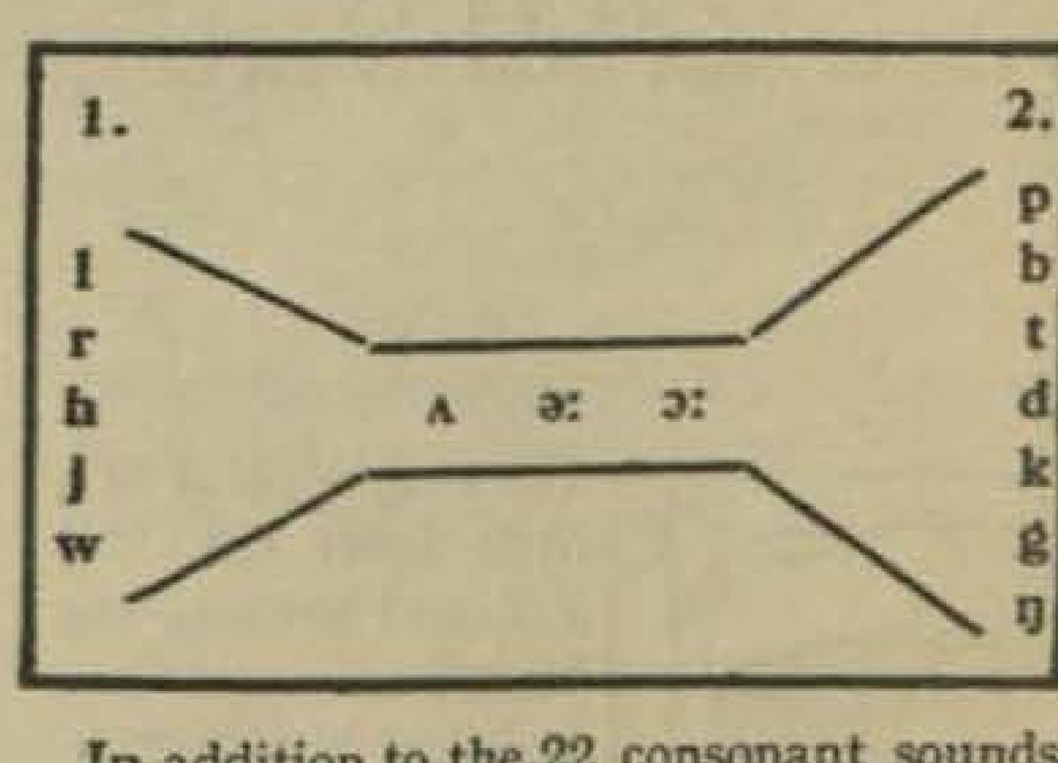


The lips are in position for **u:** (or **u**) and the sound is made by the voice cords in the throat while the lips are moving from that position to the position for the vowel coming after. These two sounds (**j** and **w**) are so very like vowels—if you make the attempt to keep **j** going you will have only an **i:**; and for **w** you will have **u:**—that they are named 'half-vowels.'

LIST 3

Words using the sounds given on this page.

he	**hi:**	*new*	**nju:**
we	**wi:**	*news*	**nju:z**
who	**hu:**	*lead*	**led**
you	**ju:**	*red*	**red**
yes	**jes**	*ill*	**il**
horn	**hɔ:rn**	*till*	**til**
cord	**kɔ:rd**	*long*	**lɔŋ**
cork	**kɔ:rk**	*wrong*	**rɔŋ**
board	**bɔ:rd**	*rat*	**rat**
sort	**sɔ:rt**	*sun*	**sʌn**
force	**fɔ:rs**	*some*	**sʌm**
warm	**wɔ:rm**	*bird*	**bə:rd**
hook	**huk**	*girl*	**gə:rl**
wood	**wud**	*turn*	**tə:rn**
wool	**wul**	*nerve*	**nə:rv**
young	**jʌŋ**	*earth*	**ə:rθ**
use	**ju:s**	*birth*	**bə:rθ**
view	**vju:**		



In addition to the 22 consonant sounds there are two others which are not truly "in addition" but are complex sounds made up of two simple sounds. If the sound **ʃ** is said starting with the tongue in position for **t** we have the complex sound **tʃ**; and if the voiced sound **ʒ** is

said starting with the tongue in position for **d** we have the complex sound **dʒ**. To some persons these two complex sounds seem to be simple sounds; but if sharp attention is given to the sounds of words like *church* and *judge* the true condition of things will be made clear.

THE FIVE COMPLEX VOWELS

Of the five complex vowels in English, three are specially important for the learner, for the reason that they are frequently seen as only one letter, which, in most other languages, would be given a simple sound in place of a complex one.

ei

The *a* in *cake* is made of two sounds—the first is almost the sound of *e* in *red*, the second is the sound of *i* in *bit*. For this complex sound the sign is **ei**. It will be a great help to have a looking-glass in your hand in making this complex sound to see how, when you go from the **e** to the **i**, the tongue comes forward and the narrow mouth opening gets narrower.

ou

The sound of *o* in *bone* is a complex sound, first almost the sound of *o* in *cord*, then the sound of *u* in *put*. For this complex sound the sign is **ou**. With a glass you will see that the round hole of the lips becomes very much smaller when you go from the **o** to the **u**.

ai

The sound of *i* in *mine* is a complex sound—first the sound of *a* in *farm*, but with the tongue forward, then the sound of *i* in *bit*. For this complex sound the sign is **ai**.

The two other complex sounds will not be so hard for the learner, because the same sounds are said in the same way in other languages, and because they are never printed as one letter.

au

The vowel sound in *house* is a complex one, first the sound of *a* in *farm*, but with the tongue forward, then the sound of *u* in *put*. The sign is **au**.

ɔi

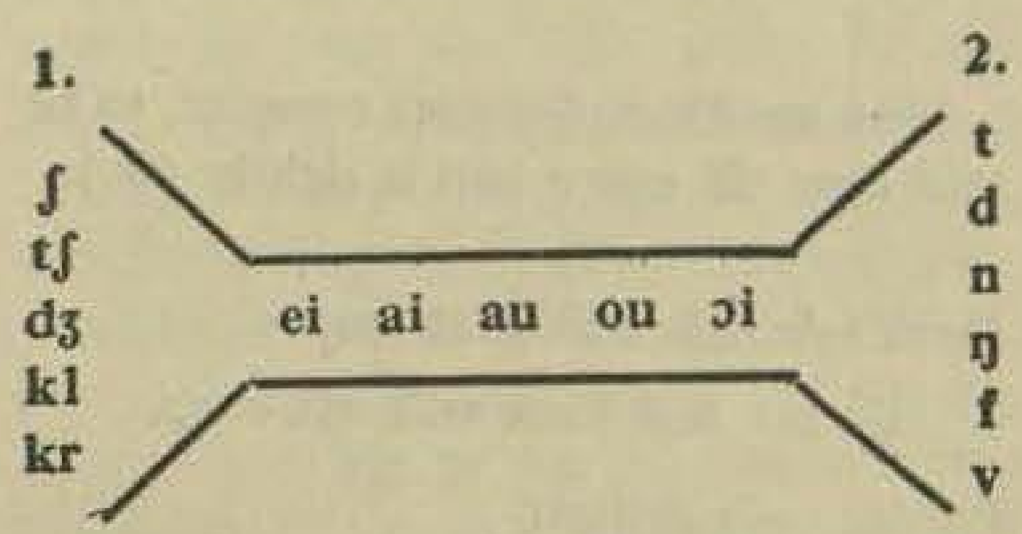
The sound of the vowel in *noise* is a complex sound, first the sound of *o* in *cord*, then the sound of *i* in *bit*. The sign is **ɔi**

e i ei   a i ai
e i a i ɔ i   ei ai ɔi
ai au ɔi ou   ai au ɔi ou

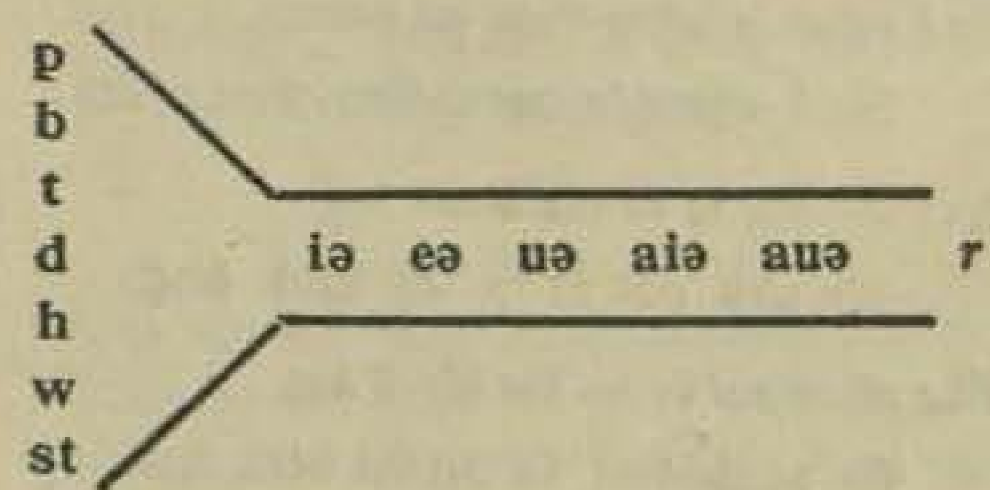
LIST 4

Words using the sounds given.

cake	keik	*pipe*	paip
make	meik	*mine*	main
take	teik	*tight*	tait
say	sei	*night*	nait
paste	peist	*sky*	skai
go	gou	*time*	taim
no	nou	*town*	taun
boat	bout	*out*	aut
coat	kout	*doubt*	daut
goat	gout	*down*	daun
note	nout	*now*	nau
so	sou	*boy*	bɔi
nose	nouz	*point*	pɔint
smoke	smouk	*noise*	nɔiz
snow	snou	*voice*	vɔis
soap	soup	*chief*	tʃiːf
snake	sneik	*cheap*	tʃiːp
spade	speid	*church*	tʃəːtʃ
safe	seif	*join*	dʒɔin
taste	teist	*judge*	dʒʌdʒ
ice	ais	*bridge*	bridʒ
size	saiz	*change*	tʃeindʒ
bite	bait		



In addition to these five complex sounds, some experts give four others. But these are only the sound **ə** put on to other vowels—generally when they come before *r*, as in these examples: *here* **hiər**, *care* **keər**, *poor* **puər**, *wire* **waiər**.



PART II

RELATIONS BETWEEN SOUNDS

JOININGS

In English, as in every other language, sounds frequently have effects on the other sounds near them. Of these effects, the most important for the learner is the effect on one another of breath and voiced sounds. The general rule is that a voiced sound after a breath sound becomes a breath sound, and a breath sound after a voiced sound becomes a voiced sound. For example—the last sound in *back* is a breath consonant, so when *ed* is put onto *back*, voiced *d* becomes breath **t**, and *backed* is **bakt**. On the other hand, when breath *s* is put onto the voiced sound at the end of *bone* it becomes voiced **z**, and *bones* is **bounz**. All vowel sounds are, naturally, voiced sounds; so *played* is **pleid**, and *plays* is **pleiz**.

When *ed* is put onto *back* we have a word with one vowel sound together with a number of consonant sounds. But when *ing* is put onto *back* we have a word with two vowel sounds together with a number of consonant sounds. Such a word is said to be of two parts, or of two 'syllables' (**ˈsiləblz**). A word generally has the same number of syllables as it has vowel sounds (all complex vowels are taken as one sound); but sometimes we have a syllable without a vowel sound. This is true of the word *syllable* itself. It has three syllables but only two vowel sounds—in going from **b** to **l** there is no time when the way through the mouth is quite open, and so, there is no vowel in the last syllable.

It is not possible for the sounds **t** or **d** to come after **t** or **d** without a vowel coming between them: when *ed* is joined to a word ending in *t* or *d* the *ed* is **id**—*carted* is **ˈkaːtid**, and *guided* is **ˈgaidid**. For a like reason, after **s**, **z**, **ʃ**, or **ʒ**, in place of *s* we put *es*, sounded **iz**: *glasses* is **ˈglaːsiz**, *brushes* is **ˈbrʌʃiz**.

back	bak	*backed*	bakt	*backs*	baks
bag	bag	*bagged*	bagd	*bags*	bagz
band	band	*banded*	ˈbandid	*bands*	bandz
bone	boun	*boned*	bound	*bones*	bounz
book	buk	*booked*	bukt	*books*	buks
box	bɔks	*boxed*	bɔkst	*boxes*	ˈbɔksiz
branch	braːntʃ	*branched*	braːntʃt	*branches*	ˈbraːntʃiz
brick	brik	*bricked*	brikt	*bricks*	briks
cart	kaːt	*carted*	ˈkaːtid	*carts*	kaːts
comb	koum	*combed*	koumd	*combs*	koumz
eye	ai	*eyed*	aid	*eyes*	aiz
fish	fiʃ	*fished*	fiʃt	*fishes*	ˈfiʃiz
hat	hat	*hatted*	ˈhatid	*hats*	hats
house	haus	*housed*	hauzd	*houses*	ˈhauziz
knife	naif	*knifed*	naift	*knives*	naivz
pencil	ˈpensl	*pencilled*	ˈpensld	*pencils*	penslz
pipe	paip	*piped*	paipt	*pipes*	paips
plane	plein	*planed*	pleind	*planes*	pleinz
plough	plau	*ploughed*	plaud	*ploughs*	plauz
screw	skruː	*screwed*	skruːd	*screws*	skruːz
thumb	θʌm	*thumbed*	θʌmd	*thumbs*	θʌm
wire	waiər	*wired*	waiərd	*wires*	waiərz

Two consonants coming one after the other are frequently joined in a special way, marked by the sign ⁀ in the examples. If they are two stopped consonants which are stopped in the same place (p and b, t and d, k and g) the mouth parts do not come away from their position after the first consonant, but keep in the same place to make the start for the second *black cat* **blak⁀kat**, *red dress* **red⁀dres**, *cheap pipe* **tʃi:p⁀paip**.

Even when the two sounds are not stopped in the same place, frequently the parts are in position for starting the second sound before the first is complete Something like this is true of some of the words in the list on the right *backed* **bakt**, *booked* **bukt**, *bricked* **brikt**, *piped* **paipt**, *bagged* **bagd**. If they are two brushed consonants, the sound goes from one into the other if possible, making one long sound in place of two separate ones *this spoon* **ðis⁀spu:n**, *these seats* **ði:z⁀si:ts**, *with them* **wið⁀ðem**. Other examples may be made by putting words in list A with words in list B, in group 4 changing where necessary to the form for more than one.

A	B	A	B
	dog		*current*
	door		*camera*
that	*dress*	*electric*	*cat*
quiet	*table*	*quick*	*cloud*
right	*ticket*	*thick*	*gloves*
wet	*town*	*dark*	*goat*
bad	*tongue*	*wrong*	*gun*
red	*tree*	*long*	*guide*
cold	*day*	*strong*	*cook*
round	*distance*		*copy*
loud	*nose*		*colour*
	night		

A	B	A	B
		this	
	basin	*six*	*servant*
	bell	*strange*	*shelf*
	bucket	*five*	*substance*
keep	*pocket*	*smooth*	*thing*
cheap	*pin*	*foolish*	*ship*
sharp	*protest*	*these*	*sheep*
	pot	*these six*	*face*
	mine	*this strange*	*seat*
	mind		

If these joinings are not made—that is, if the first consonant is given its full separate sound, there is danger of an error. In place of *black coat*, you may be saying *blacker coat*, and in place of *late train*, *later train*

Here are some examples to be gone over with care

long coat **lɔŋ⁀kout** — *longer coat* **lɔŋgə kout**

cheap plate **tʃi:p⁀pleit** — *cheaper plate* **tʃi:pə pleit**

deep place **di:p⁀pleis** — *deeper place* **di:pə pleis**

flat table **flat⁀teibl** — *flatter table* **flatə teibl**

red dress **red⁀dres** — *redder dress* **redə dres**

wet day **wet⁀dei** — *wetter day* **wetə dei**

wise son **waiz⁀sʌn** — *wiser son* **waizə sʌn**

false story **fɔ:ls⁀stɔ:ri** — *falser story* **fɔ:lsə stɔ:ri**

strange sea **streindʒ⁀si:** — *stranger sea* **streindʒə si:**

smooth silk **smu:ð⁀silk** — *smoother silk* **smu:ðə silk**

Here are examples more complex, to be said over till every join is rightly made:

Don't take cake with thick soup.
dount⁀teik⁀keik wið⁀θik su:p.

Put ten nails straight.
put⁀ten⁀neilz⁀streit.

Be good to the young.
bi gud⁀tə ðə jʌŋ.

Give five forks to the young girl.
giv⁀faiv⁀fɔ:ks tə ðə jʌŋ⁀gə:l.

Bad news is better than no news.
bæd⁀nju:z iz betər ðən⁀nou nju:z.

His ink-pot is in the black bag.
hiz iŋk⁀pɔt iz in ðə blak⁀bag.

The black cat is on the black hat.
ðə blak⁀kat iz ɔn ðə blak hat.

He got back in time for act two
hi: gɔt⁀bak in taim fɔr ak⁀tu:.

The learner is to take care not to make the sound ə between two consonants coming one after the other. In fact, where the two consonants are formed in different parts of the mouth, the two sounds are made not one after the other but almost at the same time, as, for example, in the words *blood, blow, breath, crack, flame, play, brush, please, clear*, and others.

In saying such words be certain that you are saying them as in line 2 and not as in line 1

1	2
bə'lʌd	blʌd
bə'lou	blou
bə'reθ	breθ
kə'rak	krak
fə'leim	fleim
pə'lei	plei
bə'rʌʃ	brʌʃ
pə'li:z	pli:z
kə'li:n	kli:n

THE WEIGHT

In learning the Basic words of more than one syllable the learner has to give attention to the placing of the weights, because a word is said rightly only if the sounds are rightly made and the weight is rightly placed. And to a great degree the first of these two things is dependent on the second. The weighted syllable is the one which it is important for the hearer to get clearly; and to make certain of this, the talking apparatus does everything necessary—the muscles do their work readily, the breath is pushed out with force, the vowel is fully and clearly formed. In the other syllables things are quite the opposite—as if the apparatus said "You've got the word there's no need for me to be working all the time." And in the syllables in which the apparatus takes a rest the breath is so feeble that there is very little sound, and only the suggestion of a vowel, sometimes no vowel at all And all this takes place without the conscious desire or special attention of the talker, simply as the outcome of the weight It becomes clear then how important it is for the weight to be rightly placed.

The weight is the cause of another thing which it is important for the learner to be conscious of, though it takes place without his special attention. In making stronger the second syllable of such words as *invention* and *committee*, the learner may not be conscious that he is at the same time frequently making it higher. That is to say, a picture of such a word—putting a line for the strong syllable and points for the feeble ones—would be . ‾ .

This lift of the voice on the strong syllable is only one more thing which the apparatus does to make the strong syllable clear.

So natural is this tendency to do no more work than is necessary, that even in words of one syllable there is generally a fall of the voice at the end; and the picture of a word like *wood* or *dust* would be ¬.

We have been talking about words said separately. For example, to the question "*What was the last word in that statement?*" the answer is "*Separately*" (¯ . . .). And the answer to the question: "*What is the name of the things we have on our hands?*" is "*Fingers*" (¯ .). In these answers the words are a complete thought —the thought is ended when the word is ended.

But if someone said: "*Give the names of the parts of the body,*" you would not say "*Fingers*" (¯ .), but "*Fingers*" (– ˙); because you would be going on to give a list of names. Or, if I said 1 2 3 4 (– – – ¬) you would take it that I had come to the end, and would be much surprised if I went on to say 5 6 7. But if I said 1 2 3 4 (– – – –) you would be waiting for the 5, with the thought that my list of numbers was not complete. That is to say: when words are put together in statements the voice comes down only at the end of the word which makes the statement or the thought complete. Said separately, the word *father* is – . and *makes* is ¬ and *beautiful* is – . . and *boxes* is – .. But put in a list they become *father, makes, beautiful, boxes* (– ˙, –, – . ˙, –.). And put in the statement *Father makes beautiful boxes,* they are said in quite the same way, though without any waiting between the words. Said quickly, the list of words: *John, never, takes, food, before, sleep* and the statement: *John never takes food before sleep* have the same sound.

"YES" AND "NO" QUESTIONS

In the question *Is this your book, or is it mine?* there is a fall of the voice after *mine*, but not after *book*, because there the thought, and the question, are not complete. The answer to that question is *It's yours* or *It's mine*. But there is a shorter form for such questions and answers: Generally only the first part of the question is put: *Is this your book?* and in this uncomplete form there is no fall of the voice. To this question the answer is *Yes*, or *No*. And generally, questions to which the answer is *Yes* or *No* are uncomplete questions. For this reason, in questions answered by *Yes* or *No* there is no fall of the voice at the end; but in all other questions there normally is.

The two ways in which a word may be said—one when it makes the thought complete, and the other when it does not —are different from one another in only one small detail: there is a fall of the voice in the first, but not in the second.

FEEBLE FORMS

But there is a small group of words—all of one syllable—the sound of which may be different in a more important way. When these words are said with weight they are not different, but the same, in every way, as those we have been talking about. But they are almost never said with weight: normally they have quite the same sound as the feeble syllable before a strong syllable: the two-syllable word *amount* is in no way different from *a mount(ain)* and the suggestion of a vowel in the first syllable of *surprise* is the same sound as the first vowel in *some ice*. The words in this group are given their full sound—their 'strong' form—when the sense of the statement is specially dependent on them, or when they are said separately: at all other times they are given their feeble form. *For* is fɔːr in the question: "*Who is this* FOR?" but fə in the answer: "*It's for* YOU." And give special attention to *to* and *from* in these:

I went to Paris last week. **ai went tə paris laːst wiːk.**

He came from Paris a week back. **hiː keim frm paris ə wiːk bak.**

While I was going to Paris, he was coming from Paris. **wail ai wəz goiŋ 'tuː paris, hiː wəz kʌmiŋ 'frɔm paris.**

On the right is a list of the Basic words which have strong and feeble forms. There is no need to get this list by memory, but it is wise to have it so that one may take a look at it when necessary. It will be noted that in the feeble forms the vowel is generally ə and that in the feeblest form there is no vowel at all.

First comes the group of words which in normal talking are no more than small noises slipped in between the fully sounded words: for the eye in reading them, the tongue in saying them, and the ear in hearing them, they have no more separate existence than the feeble syllable at the start of a long word like *committee*. These words are *a, the, and, of, for, from, to, than, is, some, have, that*. In addition, there are other words which very frequently have feeble forms.

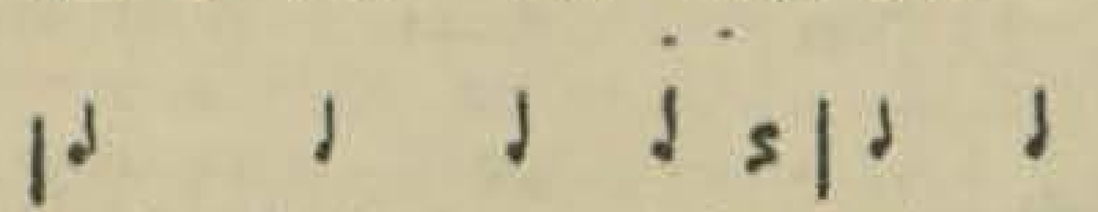
	FULL SOUND	FEEBLE SOUND
*a (an)**	ei (an)*	ə (ən)*
the	ðiː	ðə (ði)*
for	fɔːr	fər
from	frɔm	frəm frm
to	tuː	tu tə
of	ɔv	əv ə v
and	and	ənd nd n
but	bʌt	bət
some	sʌm	səm sm
than	ðan	ðən ðn
that†	ðat	ðət
as	az	əz z
not	nɔt	nət nt
if	if	f
or	ɔːr	ər r
at	at	ət
have	hav	həv əv v
has	haz	həz əz z
had	had	həd əd d
be	biː	bi
is	iz	z
am	am	əm m
was	wɔz	wəz
are	aːr	ər
were	wəːr	wər
will	wil	l
would	wud	wəd d
do	duː	də d
did	did	d
does	dʌz	dəz
he	hiː	hi i
she	ʃiː	ʃi
his	hiz	iz
her	həːr	hər r
him	him	im
me	miː	mi
them	ðem	ðəm əm
you	juː	jə
your	juər	jər
us	ʌs	əs

* Before vowels (but not before *u* sounded juː as in *use* and *unit*).

† Not when '*that*' is pointing at something special, as '*that book*.'

On this page is a list of 52 words made up of 10 groups. While the teacher keeps time by sharp blows with a pencil on the table, the learners go through the groups, giving every word its full sound, and, as they did before, keeping the voice up after every word but the last, where there is a full stop, and taking a short rest after every group, as in the example :



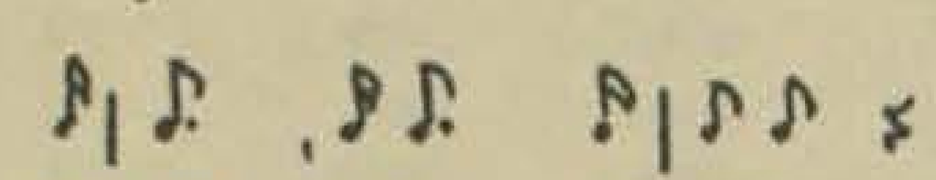


Even when the rate is very slow, as it will be at the start, see that the time between pencil blows is no longer for words like *necessary* and *existence* that it is for short words like *food* and *on*.

When list A has been done a number of times—till it goes as smoothly as a clock, list B is joined to it in this way :

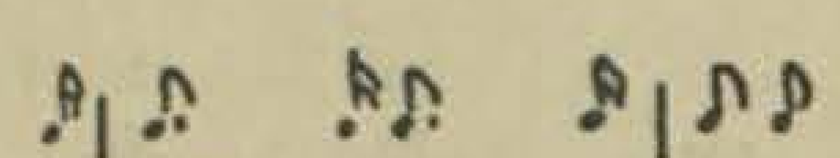
Say the three words in group A1, and then, keeping the rhythm unbroken, say them as in list B, with the addition of the Feeble Forms.





Then go through all the groups in the same way.

With an increase in the rate the words will come out more equally, and when said quickly,



will become



But there will be no other change : *food on table* will still be sounded fully and the other words feebly.

After list B has been done at a good rate, the reading of the 10 statements under C, taken from Basic Step by Step, in natural sounding English will be a simple thing.

	A	B	C
1.	*food on table.*	*some food is on the table.*	*Some food is on the table.*
2.	*skin orange bitter.*	*the skin of an orange is bitter.*	*The skin of an orange is bitter.*
3.	*learning Basic sort work.*	*the learning of Basic is a sort of work.*	*The learning of Basic is a sort of work.*
4.	*rain snow come clouds.*	*rain and snow come from clouds.*	*Rain and snow come from clouds.*
5.	*kiss smile make baby ready play.*	*a kiss and a smile make a baby ready for play.*	*A kiss and a smile make a baby ready for play.*
6.	*some fathers mothers not young.*	*some fathers and mothers are not young.*	*Some fathers and mothers are not young.*
7.	*summer go town country.*	*in the summer I go from the town to the country.*	*In the summer I go from the town to the country.*
8.	*this coat better any others.*	*this coat is better than any of the others.*	*This coat is better than any of the others.*
9.	*first picture probably copy form some animal necessary food.*	*the first picture was probably a copy of the form of some animal necessary for food.*	*The first picture was probably a copy of the form of some animal necessary for food.*
10.	*others see respect society way better existence themselves.*	*others see that respect for society is the way to a better existence for themselves.*	*Others see that respect for society is the way to a better existence for themselves.*

The statement *Some food is on the table* said by a servant to a group of persons walking about a garden, would probably be said in the way given in No. 1. But statements are frequently answers to questions; and the same statement may be the answer to a number of different questions. When *Some food is on the table* is answering the question *What is on the table?* there is only one word which the questioner has any interest in hearing—the word *food*; and if all the words in the answer were said under the breath but the word *food*, that would be answer enough. But if the question was *Where is there some food?* the first part of the answer *Some food is* has no interest for the questioner, being only his same words said again. What he is waiting for is *on the table*: it would be quite the same to him if *Some food is* was said under the breath—that is, not said at all.

In a somewhat different example:

If a small boy, let us say, put the question to you: "*Is the skin of an orange sweet?*" you would probably say: "*Quite the opposite—the skin of an orange is bitter*," with so much force on the word *bitter* that all the other words in the statement (which are only the words of the question said over again) would be feeble in comparison. And this is true generally—whenever a word in a statement is to be taken as the opposite of some other word, it is said with specially great force. In the statement as given in No. 2 the picture of the word *bitter* would be -. but as said in the answer given to the small boy it would be -.. That is, when you are making the weighted syllable specially strong, you are at the same time making it specially high.

From all this it will be seen how very important it is for you to be quite certain what the question is which is being put to you. And frequently, WHICH word in your answer is to be specially weighted is dependent on the first word in the question. Examples

WHO will be here tomorrow? JOHN will be here tomorrow.

WHERE will John be tomorrow? John will be HERE tomorrow.

WHEN will John be here? John will be here TOMORROW.

On the right are more examples for further training.

First make certain, by looking at the Key on top, what question, or what opposite idea, is being answered. Then, while the teacher puts the questions, let the learners one by one give the answers, at the start reading them, but later, without the help of the book. This will be a test of their powers of attention: there will be need of sharp ears to get quickly and clearly in the question the one word to which their specially weighted word will give the answer.

When the weighted word is the last in the statement, the voice comes down as it generally does at the end of statements; but if not, the voice comes down on the word after the weight. *HE saw John* will be -.. and *He SAW John* will be .-..

The value of this training will be increased by going through the statements at first slowly, and then by degrees, quicker and quicker.

If the specially weighted word is said rightly—that is, with great force (and on a high note), it is not at all important how the other words are said. It is not necessary to say them all on one note as in the line at the top of the examples: it is only necessary, in comparison with the specially weighted word, to say them feebly.

Key to statements A1—F7

A. 1. Who will do it?
2. Will you do it?

B. 1. Who saw John?
2. Will he see John?
3. Whom did he see?

C. 1. Which of these women is your mother?
2. I am certain that this is not your mother.
3. Whose mother is this?
4. Who is this woman?

D. 1. Who said he did it?
2. What makes you certain he did it?
3. Who did it?
4. He said he didn't do it.

E. 1. Whose small goat is black?
2. Which of your goats is black?
3. Is your small DOG black?
4. Your small goat is NOT black.
5. What colour is your small goat?

F. 1. Who took this book from my table?
2. When will you take this book from my table?
3. Which book did you take from my table?
4. What did you take from my table?
5. Did you take this book TO my table?
6. From whose table did you take this book?
7. From where did you take this book?

. . . .

A.1. 'I will.
2. I 'WILL.

B.1. 'HE saw John.
2. He 'SAW John.
3. He saw 'JOHN.

C.1. 'THIS is my mother.
2. This 'IS my mother.
3. This is 'MY mother.
4. This is my 'MOTHER.

D.1. 'THEY said he did.
2. They 'SAID he did.
3. They said 'HE did.
4. They said he 'DID.

E.1. 'MY small goat is black.
2. My 'SMALL goat is black.
3. My small 'GOAT is black.
4. My small goat 'IS black.
5. My small goat is 'BLACK.

F.1. 'I took this book from your table.
2. I 'TOOK this book from your table.
3. I took 'THIS book from your table.
4. I took this 'BOOK from your table.
5. I took this book 'FROM your table.
6. I took this book from 'YOUR table.
7. I took this book from your 'TABLE.

PART III

THE WRITING FORMS OF BASIC ENGLISH

The writing forms of English words—that is, their 'spelling'—are, for persons of other languages, and frequently for the English themselves, a cause of strong feelings—mixed feelings of surprise, amusement, and disgust. Experts have had meetings and made rules for the spelling of English; but the words, it seems, angry at not being requested to give their opinion, have come to the decision among themselves to have nothing to do with the rules.

Probably in no other country is it true—as it is certainly true in England and America—that persons of good education make errors in writing the most common words, and have no shame in doing so. Though in a printed book an error would be quickly noted, numbers of persons, if questioned as to the spelling of certain simple words, would be in doubt. When writing quickly, the small angle which makes a 'w' different from a 'u' is frequently not made; so that such everyday words as *brown, loud, trousers,* and *down* (in writing) seem equally right with 'u' or with 'w.' And frequently when one is requested to give the spelling of a word, he has to put it down on paper before giving his answer. Which makes it clear that he has no true knowledge of the spelling but only a memory of the eye for what has the look of the right spelling.

But though English words seem to be no respecters of spelling rules, they do have certain *ways* of behaviour; and by grouping the Basic words in agreement with these ways, by observation of the effect of certain letters on other letters, by noting the desire of some letters not to be seen in certain positions, and of others, to say nothing in public places, we will come to see that there is some order in the behaviour of even the strangest of them.

For the purposes of spelling, the Basic words are grouped in six lists of unequal numbers. The teacher will be the judge as to the number of words to be given at one time.

The start is made with those words in which sound and spelling are in complete agreement, and then we go on to those in which the spelling is not quite what might have been looked for, and from these to words with spelling even less regular. Suggestions are given which will be a help for special groups of words; but even after all possible care has been taken there are still some words whose spelling is outside all reason. Among the thousands of words in normal English are hundreds of such, and the fear of meeting them and the thought of the trouble of getting the better of them, have been responsible for turning back numbers of those who had made a start on the long road to normal English. But among the 850 words of Basic, the number of such words is so small, and their spelling so surprising, that the very shock of seeing them will be enough to get them fixed in the mind for all time.

LIST A:

1—iː is *ee*, but not in *he be*.

2, 3, 4, 6, 10—Vowels made with loose muscles (i e a ɔ ʌ) are one letter (*i e a o u*) before one or two consonants.

5 and 7—The vowel is long before *r*.

8 and 9—u is *oo*, (in all but *put*); and uː is *oo*. Attention will have to be given to every word. (All the words with u are in this statement: *Put the cook-book on the wood hook and take a good look at the wool on your foot*).

12—k at the end of words is *ck*.

1. iː
be, he, bee, see, tree, free, deep, keep, sleep, seed, seem, need, green, street, steel, sweet, sneeze, wheel, week

2. i
bit, pig, lip, slip, grip, in, pin, tin, skin, swim, print, wind, list, mist, twist, if, lift, milk, silk

3. e
let, net, get, wet, bed, red, pen, end, send, leg, test, west, left, rest, self, help, stem, step, bent

4. a
at, cat, hat, fat, rat, flat, sad, map, and, band, hand, land, sand, ant, bad, sad, bag, flag, man, stamp

5. aː
far, star, art, part, cart, start, arm, farm, card, hard, dark, mark, heart

6. ɔ
on, of, not, pot, top, stop, dog, from, drop, soft, rod

7. ɔː
or, for, form, cord, cork, fork, horn, sort, horse, force, store

8. u
put, cook, book, hook, look, good, wood, wool, foot

9. uː
boot, food, root, roof, room, moon, spoon, school, loose

10. ʌ
up, cup, but, nut, cut, rub, gun, run, sun, pump, dust, bulb

11. Two consonants sounded as one
ill, till, still, will, bell, smell, well, full, pull, stiff, off, kiss, loss, mass, dress, egg

12. k=ck
brick, stick, trick, kick, quick, neck, back, black, crack, lock, sock, clock

LIST B:

1, 2, 3—The unsounded *e* at the end of these words is a sign that the sound of the vowel before the consonant is the same as its letter name.

4—au may be *ou* (as in words ending with *d*) or *ow* (as in words ending with *n*).

7—ks is *x*.

9—Vowel is long as effect of *l* or *r*.

11, 13, 14—Two vowels generally sounded as letter name of first; but four ending in *d* (12) have short sound of first vowel.

15—Unsounded *gh* gives *i* the sound of its letter name.

17—Most of the words in this list will have to be given special attention.

1. ei
cake, brake, make, take, snake, name, same, flame, frame, trade, blade, spade, hate, plate, rate, late, safe, plane, wave, base, male, scale, face, place, space, paste, taste, waste

2. ai
I, bite, white, quite, side, wide, pipe, like, smile, while, mine, line, wine, ice, rice, price, time, wise, size, crime

3. ou
hope, slope, note, smoke, nose, prose, bone, stone, hole

4. au
out, loud, cloud, round, sound

house
new
how
cow
down
town
brown
fowl

5. ɔi
boy
oil
noise
voice
point

6. Unsounded consonants
knee
knife
knot
comb
debt
doubt
sign

7. ks = *x*
sex
box
tax
wax
mixed
fixed

8. ʌ
son
front
come
some
love
glove

9. ɔː
all
ball
tall
fall
wall
small
salt
false
war
warm
floor
door
board

10. aː
past
last
grass
brass
glass
plant

11. iː
east
heat
meat
sea
seat
meal
leaf
clean
peace
please
steam

12. e
head
dead
lead
bread

13. ei
pain
rain
brain
grain
train
drain
paint
nail
sail
rail
tail
say
day
play
ray
may
tray
way

14. ou
boat
coat
goat
road
soap
coal
go
so
no
low
blow
slow
snow
old
cold
fold
gold
roll

15. ai
high
light
tight
bright
night
flight
right
fight

16. uː
to
do
who
move
group
soup
wound
true
blue
rule
fruit
use
new
news
view
screw

17. Mixed list
act
fact
grey
law
drawer
cause
as
whip
when
field
friend
sense
give
have
kind
mind
rough
cough
laugh
eye
guide
blood
talk
walk
plough
toe
weight
great
straight

LIST C:

It will be seen that most of the words in this list and in those coming after are sounded in agreement with notes given for lists A and B—for example, in C1 *thin* is in agreement with A2, *thick* under A12, *throat* under B14, and *thread* under B12.

7—*r*, when it comes at the end of a word is not sounded by numbers of English persons, and its place is taken by the feeble sound ə.

8—Before *r* (sounded or unsounded) with a consonant sound coming after ə may be any vowel.

1. θ
thin
thick
throat
thread
thumb
through
thought
death
breath
healthy
cloth
north
tooth
bath
mouth
south
month
growth

2. ð
the
this
that
then
than
though
with
smooth

3. ʃ
sheep
sharp
shade
shake
ship
shelf
shame
shut
short
shock
shoe
smash
wash
fish
push
brush
crush

4. tʃ
chief
cheap
cheese
chain
chance
chin
chest
chalk
much
such
touch
arch
match
branch
watch
stitch
stretch

5. dʒ
page
stage
change
range
strange
sponge
bridge
edge
judge
jump
jelly
join

6. *y*
baby
any
only
body
copy
story
army
angry
happy
berry
very
every
sticky
country
key
monkey
money
ready
by
cry
dry
fly
sky
why
you
yes
young

7. ə in place of *r*
ear
fear
dear
near
year
here
clear
wire
fire
tired
air
hair
care
square
where
there
poor
hour
power
flower

8. əː
bird
girl
birth
first
shirt
skirt
burn
turn
burst
curve
church
nerve
verse
journey
earth
early
dirty
word
worm
work

9. ŋ
ink
drink
ring
wing
thing
spring
wrong
long
song
strong
tongue
reading
teaching
hearing
feeling
meeting
driving
writing
building
living
waiting
morning
hanging
stocking
boiling
learning

LIST D:

1—*l* with a vowel before it or after it may be sounded əl, but generally the syllable is formed by l only. And so with *n*.

1.
l syllable
middle
apple
little
bottle
kettle
needle
whistle
angle
circle
able
table
trouble
feeble
simple
muscle
pencil
level
vessel
parcel
special
metal
normal

2.
n syllable
button
cotton
person
poison
prison
reason
certain
curtain
basin
oven
garden
sudden
present

3.
ʃn syllable
nation
station
question
motion
fiction
cushion

4.
m syllable
rhythm

LIST E:

Sometimes the feeble sound is ə, sometimes it is a sort of i, and sometimes it is somewhere between these two. In some words it is not important which of these sounds it is; but it is at all times important for the sound to be a feeble sound—like the Feeble Forms talked of in Part II. No word in List E has more than one fully sounded vowel.

1.
ə = *e*
open
even
broken
quiet
science
cruel
jewel
payment
statement
frequent
current
interest
property
tendency
discovery
different
government
existence
experience

2.
ə*r* = *er*
river
bitter
finger
silver
winter
sister
butter
summer
under
thunder
number
danger
after
answer
father
letter
ever
leather
feather
weather
over
other
mother
brother
cover
daughter
water
hammer
paper
flower
power
order
porter
owner
powder
trousers
offer
copper

3.
ə = *a*

canvas
balance
substance
distance
stomach
forward
collar
sugar
equal
woman
island
idea
again
against
attempt
across
amount
account
about
attack
awake
among
adjustment
machine
approval
delicate
separate
general
camera
servant
important
necessary
secretary
insurance
military
library
company
probable
material
ornament
agreement
amusement
advertisement
addition
attention
attraction

4.
ə = *o*

second
error
comfort
common
purpose
scissors
iron
violent
history
memory
theory
harmony
opposite
development
potato
comparison
together
control
opinion
society
committee
complete
position
connection
condition

5.
ə = *u* or *ou*

pleasure
measure
structure
future
picture
colour
humour
harbour
behaviour
serious
conscious
beautiful
industry
instrument
support
surprise
suggestion
natural

6.
Feeble i = *i*

liquid
limit
acid
public
unit
music
polish
possible
animal
profit
foolish
office
credit
engine
solid
punishment
disease
disgust
family
quality
division
hospital
chemical
medical
physical
political
distribution
discussion
destruction
digestion
direction
invention

7.
Feeble i = *e*

pocket
ticket
bucket
basket
market
secret
linen
system
knowledge
business
effect
enough
event
exchange
example
expansion
elastic
electric
degree
design
desire
dependent
decision
reward
receipt
regret
request
respect
religion
relation
selection
because
between
before
belief
responsible

8.
Feeble i = *a*, or other letters

orange
damage
language
private
manager
married
carriage
minute
mountain
yesterday

LIST F:

In the two syllable words in this list there are no feeble vowels. In the longer words, in addition to the feeble vowels, there are two fully sounded vowels, and in the last two words there are three.

insect
female
detail
process
protest
produce
increase
impulse
window
yellow
hollow
narrow
record
expert
almost
complex
value
transport
fertile
reaction
regular
tomorrow
argument
umbrella
authority
automatic
apparatus
parallel
representative
competition
observation
operation

education
organization

PART IV

SUGGESTIONS TO THE TEACHER

It is hoped that the teacher and the group will together make up different ways of using the material in this book. As a help in this direction, here are some suggestions.

1. One of the group may give a short statement which the teacher puts on the board in phonetics, writing down the sounds quite as they have been made by the learner. If the learner makes a protest that the teacher is putting down the wrong sign, the teacher's answer will be that if he has made the wrong sign it is only because the learner has made the wrong sound; and that he is ready to put down the right sign when the right sound comes to his ears—not before.

2. A number of the group may go to the board, every one to put down in phonetics a short statement given by the teacher. After the statement has been given twice—no more—those at the board put down what, in their opinion, the teacher has said. Then the teacher goes round, reading the statements on the board, the group making suggestions for putting right the errors.

3. The teacher, reading from a paper on which he has put them, gives five words: for example—*see seat seed seed seat.* As quickly as a word comes to his ears every one in the group puts down a number—1 for the first word, 2 for the second if it seems to him to be a new word, but 1 if it seems to be the same word as the first. That is —for a different word he puts down a different number, for the same word he puts down the same number. The teacher gives the list slowly and clearly, but once only. After 5 lists the teacher gives the right numbers and the group sees who has done the best. On the teacher's paper the lists are numbered, for example:

see	*seat*	*seed*	*seed*	*seat*
1	2	3	3	2

By changing the order, the same lists may be used a number of times. In place of 5 words, 6 may be given. And the rate of giving the words may be increased.

Some groups of words to be used:

bed bad bath : boat board bird : gold coal cold : ear here air : are our art : hair here air : ear here year : goat go coat : ways west waste : sheep ship she : late let light.

4. Here are some tongue-twisters, some of which would give trouble even to Englishmen, but if you go into them with care and strong purpose, you may (possibly) come out undamaged at the other end. It is only a question of moving the right thing to the right place at the right time.

1. *The sweetest songs are those of saddest thought.*
2. *We will have a violent wind and a very warm day.*
3. *She said she saw six ships sailing on the sea.*
4. *These thick things seem sweet and sticky things.*
5. *The North Sea is south of the bath house.*
6. *We've a very wide view of the value of work and the waste of war*
7. *She is sending seven soft silk shirts for seven short thin sons.*
8. *With such thoughts as these he sees through things.*

5. The learners have the Basic list in front of them, with the lines numbered from 1 to 9. The teacher puts on the blackboard a sound and a number, for example, u:6. Then the group all together go down line 6, reading the words; but only the words having u: will be said out loud—the others will be said very softly. Or one learner may do the reading, and when he says loudly a word which has no u:, or goes past one which has, the player coming after him goes on with the reading.

6. This is a test in the knowledge of the different ways of writing the vowel sounds One learner makes a start with list 1 and keeps on reading till he is stopped for making an error. If he truly has made an error, the person stopping him goes on with the list, if not he goes on again, and the protester has to say every word after him.

1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
ear	*go*	*blood*	*about*	*weight*	iər	gou	blʌd	ə'baut	weit
early	*do*	*cook*	*cough*	*straight*	'ə:rli	du:	kuk	kɔf	streit
lead	*worm*	*tooth*	*doubt*	*light*	led	wə:rm	tu:θ	daut	lait
fear	*so*	*door*	*group*	*thought*	fiər	sou	dɔ:r	gru:p	θɔ:t
great	*to*	*moon*	*hour*	*cough*	greit	tu:	mu:n	auər	kɔf
earth	*other*	*foot*	*though*	*rough*	ə:rθ	'ʌðər	fut	ðou	rʌf
reading	*or*	*food*	*rough*	*though*	'ri:diŋ	ɔ:r	fu:d	rʌf	ðou
feather	*not*	*room*	*mountain*	*high*	'feðər	nɔt	ru:m	'mauntin	hai
sea	*cord*	*poor*	*mouth*	*plough*	si:	kɔ:rd	puər	mauθ	plau
head	*hope*	*spoon*	*thought*	*through*	hed	houp	spu:n	θɔ:t	θru:
steam	*love*	*floor*	*south*	*enough*	sti:m	lʌv	flɔ:r	sauθ	i'nʌf
dead	*move*	*look*	*journey*	*daughter*	ded	mu:v	luk	'dʒə:rni	'dɔ:tər
heart	*note*	*wood*	*harbour*		ha:rt	nout	wud	'ha:rbər	
idea	*roll*	*boot*	*serious*		ai'diə	roul	bu:t	'siəriəs	
learning	*son*	*wool*	*house*		'lə:rniŋ	sʌn	wul	haus	
beautiful	*song*	*hook*	*enough*		'bju:tifl	sɔŋ	huk	i'nʌf	
ready	*stop*	*book*	*plough*		'redi	stɔp	buk	plau	
reason	*word*	*roof*	*through*		'ri:zn	wə:rd	ru:f	θru:	
	comb	*school*	*round*			koum	sku:l	raund	
	dog	*loose*	*country*			dɔg	lu:s	'kʌntri	
	glove	*root*	*trouble*			glʌv	ru:t	'trʌbl	
	nose		*wound*			nouz		wu:nd	
	potato		*sound*			pə'teitou		saund	
	sponge		*colour*			spʌndʒ		'kʌlər	
	common		*cloud*			'kɔmən		klaud	
	long		*conscious*			lɔŋ		'kɔnʃəs	
	low		*humour*			lou		'hju:mər	
	opinion		*loud*			ə'pinjən		laud	
	control		*behaviour*			kən'troul		bi'heivjər	
			trousers					'trauzərz	

Under this is a list of words in groups of two. If your purpose in talking English is to give your English hearers great amusement, you have only to put one of the two in place of the other · *My bag (back) is tired —I'll take a little slip (sleep). Our eyes-man (ice-man) has such beautiful blue ice (eyes) Have a seed (seat) and take some foot (food).* But if that is not your purpose, it would be wise to be certain that you are able to say them quite right If there is any trouble in hearing how one word is different from the other, it would be well to go back to the account of the separate sounds. If, for example, *comb* and *come* seem to a learner to be the same, let him make a comparison between the accounts of ou and of ʌ given some pages back. In every example the learner has to be conscious of what is taking place in his mouth which makes the two words different.

A good system is for the teacher to say one of the two words. and then for the learner to say the other, if necessary making use of the phonetics at first.

1	2	1	2
debt	*death*	det	deθ
coat	*goat*	kout	gout
hat	*had*	hat	had
had	*head*	had	hed
back	*bag*	bak	bag
bed	*bad*	bed	bad
sad	*said*	sad	sed
foot	*food*	fut	fu:d
seed	*seat*	si:d	si:t
comb	*come*	koum	kʌm
pen	*pin*	pen	pin
hair	*air*	heər	eər
sheep	*ship*	ʃi:p	ʃip
peace	*bees*	pi:s	bi:z
thin	*tin*	θin	tin
tree	*three*	tri:	θri:
these	*this*	ði:z	ðis
ice	*eyes*	ais	aiz
sand	*send*	sand	send
worse	*verse*	wə:rs	və:rs
market	*marked*	'ma:rkit	ma:rkt
worm	*warm*	wə:rm	wɔ:rm
sleep	*slip*	sli:p	slip

8. TEST QUESTIONS

1. In what different ways is the letter *a* sounded in this statement:

The tall man gave a small cat to the farmer's baby.

2. What number of voiced consonants are there in this statement and which are they:

He is taking his boxes and bags to the station.

3. What number of times is ʒ sounded in this statement :

The judges made a change in their decision on the division of the oranges.

4. Make the changes in the phonetics of these statements necessary to put them right.

(*a*) *The man put a book on the table.*
θa men pu:t ə bʌk a:n ði 'tɔibil.

(*b*) *I saw the boy take a box.*
ei su: ða bai taik ei bɔ:kz

(*c*) *The small girl has a red hat.*
ðe smul ɡʌl hes ə rad het.

5. Put a mark under the **ɡ** sounds in this statement :

All the long morning he was learning the wrong song.

6. Put a mark under all the feeble vowels in this statement :

The destruction of the apparatus was a serious blow to the organization.

7. In some words *k b gh* and *l* are seen but not sounded. Give three words of which this is true of *k* ; two in which it is true of *b* ; two of *l* ; and five of *gh*.

8. The positions of the mouth parts are different for **s** and **θ**, **l** and **r**, **w** and **v**. If you were teaching someone English, how would you make this clear with the smallest number of words ?

9. What are three questions to which the answers are :

(*a*) *HE has my book.*
(*b*) *He has MY book.*
(*c*) *He has my BOOK.*

10. Taking one from group A and one from group B, put together in twos the words which have the same vowel sound :

A. *blow cart plough dead young curve who he warm straight high.*

B. *nerve sea form hate red true tongue now heart though eye.*

ANSWERS TO TEST QUESTIONS

1. ɔ: a ei ə a:
2. 12—**z ŋ z b z n d b ɡ z ð n.**
3. 6 times.
4. (*a*) **ðə man put ə buk ɔn ðə teibl.**
(*b*) **ai sɔ: ðə bɔi teik ə bɔks.**
(*c*) **ðə smɔ:l ɡə:l haz ə red hat.**
5. There are no **ɡ** sounds in the statement. (But there are 5 **ŋ** sounds.)
6. *The destruction of the apparatus was a serious blow to the organization.*
7. *knife, knot, knowledge : debt, comb : talk, walk : light, daughter, bright, though, fight,* (or others).
8. In **s** the teeth are shut : in **θ** they are open.
In **l** the point of tongue is touching roof of mouth over teeth : in **r** not.
In **v** the lower lip is touching the top teeth : in **w** not.
9. (*a*) *Who has your book ?*
(*b*) *Whose book has he ?*
(*c*) *What has he ?*
10. *blow : though*
cart : heart
plough : now
dead : red
young : tongue
curve : nerve
who : true
he : sea
warm : form
straight : hate
high : eye

9. CHAINS

Put down in phonetics any one-syllable Basic word. Then, by changing one sound, make another word, and so on as long as possible. When a group is playing they all make a start with the same word, and at the end of five minutes, the one having the longest chain puts all his words on the board, and then the other players in turn. Every word gets 2 marks ; but the word in which there is an error of any sort, or in which a rule is broken, gets no marks. And all the words coming after that word get no marks, because the chain is broken. The play is ended when one player has 50 marks.

RULES.

1. Only one sound may be changed for every new word.
2. The change may be made by putting on a sound, or by taking one away, as—**ould**
kould
koul
3. The change may be from a simple vowel to a complex, as —**hat**
heit
4. In addition to the form of the word given in the 850, the other forms may be freely used, as
taks or **neim**
baks **keim**
5. No word may be used more than once in the same chain.

Here are two chains : the first one has no errors and would be given 14 marks : the second, though a longer chain, is broken in the 5th word, and would be given only 8 marks.

gou	**gou**
gout	**gout**
kout	**kout**
koul	**kʌt**
kould	**get**
gould	**let**
ould	**leit**
	heit
	hɔt
	pɔt

TROUBLE-GIVERS

Among the 22 consonant and 12 vowel sounds of English are a number which will give trouble to the learner whose natural language is not English. But the sounds will not be the same for the learners of all countries. In one place, the **θ** will be a cause of much trouble ; while in another that sound will be simple, but the **v** will be hard to make. The question as to which sounds will give trouble is dependent on the language of the learner—how like, or how unlike English its sounds are.

In this small book it would not be possible to give special directions for the different groups of learners ;—but some suggestions may be of value.

What is named ' trouble ' is generally one sound getting mixed with another sound, frequently a sound simpler to make, which one says in place of the troubling sound : **tin** in place of **θin**, **pu:t** for **put**, **ais** for **aiz**, **ʃest** for **tʃest**. The cause of all these errors is the same—some part of the talking apparatus is in the wrong position or in the wrong condition. And the one way to put right all these errors is to go to the pictures and the accounts of the sounds in the first part of this book. When **tin** is said in place of **θin**, a look at the picture on p. 279 will make clear that in **θ** no part of the tongue is touching the roof of the mouth over the teeth. If **pu:t** is said for **put**, reading the account on 279 will make clear that with soft muscles it will not be possible to say **u:**. And so with the others.

By the time that all the sounds have been gone through, the teacher will have a list of the trouble-makers—never more than five or six for any one group of learners—and special training may be given in these. The use of the Word-Formers, with necessary attention to the sounds in question, will be of great help.

Appendix A

The names of the English letters

letter	*name*	*letter*	*name*
a	ei	*n*	en
b	bi:	*o*	ou
c	si:	*p*	pi:
d	di:	*q*	kju:
e	i:	*r*	a:r
f	ef	*s*	es
g	dʒi:	*t*	ti:
h	eitʃ	*u*	ju:
i	ai	*v*	vi:
j	dʒei	*w*	dʌblju
k	kei	*x*	eks
l	el	*y*	wai
m	em	*z*	zed

Appendix B

The names of the days and months

Monday	ˈmʌndi
Tuesday	ˈtju:zdi
Wednesday	ˈwenzdi
Thursday	ˈθə:rzdi
Friday	ˈfraidi
Saturday	ˈsatərdi
Sunday	ˈsʌndi
January	ˈdʒanjuəri
February	ˈfebruəri
March	ma:rtʃ
April	ˈeiprəl
May	mei
June	dʒu:n
July	dʒuˈlai
August	ˈɔ:gəst
September	səpˈtembər
October	ɔktoubər
November	nəˈvembər
December	diˈsembər

Appendix C

The Necessary Numbers

1	*one*	wʌn
2	*two*	tu:
3	*three*	θri:
4	*four*	fɔ:r
5	*five*	faiv
6	*six*	siks
7	*seven*	sevn
8	*eight*	eit
9	*nine*	nain
10	*ten*	ten
11	*eleven*	iˈlevn
12	*twelve*	twelv
13	*thirteen*	ˈθə:rˈti:n
14	*fourteen*	ˈfɔ:rˈti:n
15	*fifteen*	ˈfifˈti:n
16	*sixteen*	ˈsiksˈti:n
20	*twenty*	ˈtwenti
30	*thirty*	ˈθə:rti
40	*forty*	ˈfɔ:rti
50	*fifty*	ˈfifti
100	*hundred*	ˈhʌndrəd
1000	*thousand*	ˈθauzənd
1,000,000	*million*	ˈmiljən
	once	wʌns
	twice	twais
	half	ha:f
	quarter	ˈkwɔ:rtər
	third	θə:rd
	fourth	fɔ:rθ
	fifth	fifθ
	eighth	eitθ

Appendix D

The First 50 International Words

alcohol	ˈalkəhɔl
aluminium	alju:ˈminjəm
automobile	ˈɔ:təməbi:l
bank	bank
bar	ba:r
beef	bi:f
beer	biər
calendar	ˈkalindər
chemist	ˈkemist
cheque	tʃek
chocolate	ˈtʃɔklit
chorus	ˈkɔ:rəs
cigarette	sigəˈret
club	klʌb
coffee	ˈkɔfi
colony	ˈkɔləni
dance	da:ns
engineer	endʒiˈniər
gas	gas
hotel	houˈtel
influenza	influ:ˈenzə
lava	la:və
madam	ˈmadəm
nickel	ˈnikl
opera	ˈɔpərə
orchestra	ˈɔ:rkistrə
paraffin	ˈparəfin
park	pa:rk
passport	ˈpa:spɔ:rt
patent	ˈpeitənt
phonograph	ˈfounəgraf
piano	ˈpjanou
police	pəˈli:s
post	poust
programme	ˈprougram
propaganda	prɔpəˈgandə
radio	ˈreidiou
restaurant	ˈrestərɔ:ŋ
sir	sə:r
sport	spɔ:rt
taxi	ˈtaksi
tea	ti:
telegram	ˈteləgram
telephone	ˈteləfoun
terrace	ˈterəs
theatre	ˈθiətər
tobacco	təˈbakou
university	ju:niˈvə:rsiti
whisky	ˈwiski
zinc	ziŋk

Appendix E

12 Names of Sciences

Algebra	ˈaldʒibrə
Arithmetic	əˈriθmətik
Biology	baiˈɔlədʒi
Chemistry	ˈkemistri
Geography	dʒiˈɔgrəfi
Geology	dʒiˈɔlədʒi
Geometry	dʒiˈɔmitri
Mathematics	maθiˈmatiks
Physics	ˈfiziks
Physiology	fiziˈɔlədʒi
Psychology	saiˈkɔlədʒi
Zoology	zouˈɔlədʒi

Appendix F

12 Special Names

College	ˈkɔlidʒ
Dominion	dəˈminjən
Embassy	ˈembəsi
Empire	ˈempaiər
Imperial	imˈpiəriəl
King	kiŋ
Museum	mju:ˈziəm
President	ˈprezidənt
Prince	prins
Princess	prinˈses
Queen	kwi:n
Royal	ˈrɔiəl

NEW WORDS IN ABC ORDER

Against every word is the number of the page on which it is first used.

MILITARY VOCABULARY

(*N.B.*—This is a list of military words used fairly freely in this book. Most of them will be familiar to the average Indian soldier, whether he has learnt English or not. Those which are already on the Basic list, or are legitimate derivatives, are in italics. Military words which were used in *Books I* and *II* are not included here.)

Buildings, etc.
fort
jungle
trench
workshop

Discipline
loyal
pass
release
salute
service

Equipment
tube (of gas-mask)
tarpaulin

Operations
battle-*field*
blast
contract
counter-*attack*
dummy *guns*
explosion
first-aid
guerilla
information
pill-*boxes*
surrender
troops
victory

Organization
armourer
camp
cavalry
infantry
intelligence
marine
ordnance
signals
squadron
supply
troop

Ranks
badge
civilian
crown
field commander
promotion

Routine, Training
angle (acute, obtuse)
compass
demobilized
instructor
line (contour, grid)
magnetic (*north*) (*south*)
parole
protractor
six figure *map* reference

Weapons
atom bomb
barbed-*wire*
bomber
bow
bull-dozer
chlorine (gas)
magnetic mine
musket
shrapnel
sling (of rifle)
submarine

OTHER NON-BASIC WORDS

(*N.B.*—This is another list of non-Basic words which, though not strictly military or technical, have been used in the book either because they are bound up with the soldier's life, as a soldier, citizen or individual, or because they are useful aids to teaching a particular point. Most of them will already be familiar to the average soldier. Non-Basic words which are used in *Books I* and *II* are not included here.)

Amusements, etc.
gramophone *record*
holiday
tobacco
toddy

Animals
bitch
buffalo
cock
crocodile
deer
donkey
hen
mongoose
owl
trunk (of elephant)

Buildings, etc.
cement
chimney
garage
jail
mosque
platform
saloon
temple

Diseases, etc.
beat (of heart)
buzzing (of mosquito)
kala-azar
leprosy
mosquito
penicillin
plague
stethoscope
tuberculosis

Food, etc.
banana
chocolate
curry
lemon
mango
porridge
tomatoes

Government, Law
assembly
candidate
council
court
election
fine
governor
jury
lawyer
member
minister
polling day
province
revenue
suit
tribe
vote (voter)

Instruments, etc.
chisel
crane
cranking handle
jack
oar
pulley
rain guage
saw
spanner
spindle

Dress, Jewels
diamond
pyjama
ruby
sandal
sapphire

Miscellaneous
arithmetic
bedstead
blotting paper
candle
cot
export
god
greeting
heaven
husband
kerosene oil
ladder
lottery
magnet
mat
monsoon
paraffin
phosphorus
pigmy
prayer
rope
scenery
strike
sulphur
uncle
wife

Occupation
beggar
clerk
dentist
guard
job
magician
mechanic
typist

Trees, Plants, etc.
bamboo
guava
grape-*tree*
lime
papaya
vine

Transport
accelerator (of car)
axle (of car)
docks
drum
funnel (of ship)
gear
hold (of ship)
petrol
saddle
sea-sick

Uplift
canal
coir
co-operation
cottage *industry*
demonstration *farm*
fibre
gunny
hand-loom
reconstruction programme
savings (s. bank)
spinning *wheel*
stud bull
tank
weaving
yarn

VERNACULAR WORDS

agha
bey
cadi
chowki, (chowkidar)
coolie
durbar
hakim
municipality
mufti
panchayat
sanyasi
sati
tahsildar
vaidya
vakil

E[illegible]LISH CERTIFICATE EXAMINATIONS

(INDIAN ARMY)

Prescribed Texts

For:	Text:	Word-L[illegible]:
Third Class Cert.	**Basic English Lesson Scripts Book One (I. A. Edition)** .. *(Filmstrips Series 1: For Instructors only)*	275
[illegible]cond Class Cert.	**Basic English Lesson Scripts Book Two (I. A. Edition)** .. *(Filmstrips Series 2: For Instructors only)*	600
First Class Cert	**Basic English Lesson Scripts Book Three (I. A. Edition)** .. *(Filmstrips Series 3: For Instructors only)*	850
[illegible]	**Wider English Lesson Scripts (I. A. Edition)** * .. .. *[illegible] systematically graded course, for use preparatory to [illegible] [illegible]d wider (ungraded) English of the Special C[illegible]t. of Ed. syllabus [illegible]aper, designed to enable the student to receive all [illegible]ruction [illegible] subjects in English.]*	2000

Supplementary (Optional) Reading

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Second Class Cert.	**Basic Way Reading Book One**	Graded (275-550)
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	Basic One-Level Story Series .. .. *(Crusoe, Gulliver, Gold Insect, etc.)*	**In Full Basic**
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	Basic Picture Dictionary	**Pictures & Text**
Special Cert. of [illegible]d.	**General B[illegible]c English Dictionary**	**Defines 40,00[illegible] words [illegible] idioms in Basic English.**

Applications for pre[illegible]ribed texts and filmstrips to be made to the Army Education Dir[illegible]orate, G.H.Q.(I[illegible] [illegible]elhi, through Army/Command C.E.O.'s. Supplementary texts, dictionaries, etc. may be obtained from the Times [illegible] India Press, Bombay.

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